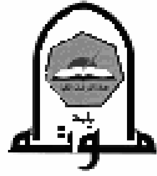


Mutah University
The Deanship of Graduate Studies

Native and Non Native Teachers' Impact on the Preparatory Year Students' Achievement in English Courses at the University of Tabuk

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my:
Father who encouraged me to continue my study.
Mother who never forget me in her prayers.
Wife who is the most important person in my life.
Brothers and sister.
Dear daughter Lujain.
Dear sons Taim and Aws.
Friends and colleagues.

Kosay Alshewiter

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Abbreviation List

NSs: Native Speakers
NNSs: Non Native Speakers
NESTs: Native English Speaking Teachers
NNESTs: Non Native English Speaking Teachers
PY: Preparatory Year

Abstract

Native and Non native Teachers' Impact on the Preparatory Year Students' Achievement in English Courses at the University of Tabuk

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This study investigated the effect of using native and non – native English teachers on the achievement of preparatory year students at the University of Tabuk for the academic year 2013 / 2014. To achieve the purpose of the study, a pre/post test was constructed to measure students' level in English skills. The test consisted of four parts listening, reading, writing, structure. A speaking test was also conducted to measure the students' level in speaking skill. The study sample consisted of eight groups from the intermediate level taught by both native and non native English speakers teachers.

The researcher used a descriptive statistical analysis T-test (means and standard deviations). The findings of the study showed that there was a significant correlation between listening and speaking skills in favour of native speakers. And there was a significant correlation between writing and grammar skills in favour of non-native speakers. And there was no statically significant in the achievements of students in reading skill. Also, there were no statically significant differences in the student's achievement due to gender.

In the light of those findings, the study recommends that both native and non native English speakers are important for the learning process.

Key Words: Non-Native Speakers, Achievement and Preparatory Year.

الملخص

أثر المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والمدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية على تحصيل طلبة السنة التحضيرية بجامعة تبوك

قصي الشويطر

جامعة مؤتة، 2014

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى بيان أثر المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والمدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية على تحصيل طلبة السنة التحضيرية بجامعة تبوك. لتحقيق هدف الدراسة، تم إجراء إختبار قبلي وإختبار بعدي لقياس مستوى الطلبة في مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية. تكون الإختبار من أربع مهارات هي الإستماع، القراءة، الكتابة والقواعد. كما تم تنفيذ إختبار محادثة لقياس مستوى الطلاب في مهارة المحادثة. تكونت عينة الدراسة من ثمان مجموعات أربع مجموعات ذكور وأربع مجموعات إناث. تم تدريسم من خلال مدرسين ومدرسات ناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية وغير ناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية.

استخدم الباحث التحاليل الإحصائية الوصفية (المتوسطات والإنحرافات المعيارية) لكل من الإختبار القبلي والإختبار البعدي لمجموعات الدراسة.

وأشارت النتائج إلى أن هناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في مهارات الإستماع والمحادثة لصالح المجموعات التي تم تدريسها من قبل مدرسين ناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية وهناك فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية لمصلحة المجموعات التي تم تدريسها من قبل مدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية ولا يوجد فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في تحصيل الطلبة في مهارة القراءة بين المجموعات التي تم تدريسها من قبل مدرسين ناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والمجموعات التي تم تدريسها من قبل مدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية. ولم يكن هناك أيضا فرق ذو دلالة إحصائية في تحصيل الطلبة تعزى لمتغير الجنس.

وفي ضوء هذه النتائج فإن الدراسة توصي بأن المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والمدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية عناصر مهمة في العملية التعليمية.

كلمات مفتاحيه: مدرسين غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية ، إختبار تحصيلي ، السنة التحضيرية.

Chapter One
Theoretical Background

1.1 Introduction

English as a foreign language courses are basically concerned with English language for international communication. It has developed to be the most widely used language in the world. Learning English as a foreign language has become a very common phenomenon in most of the Arab countries. English language is significant for being a tool that facilitates learning in relevant fields. Learners' ability in English language has not been promising, as it neither relates to their demands or ambitions, nor substantiates the efforts and financial support expended on learning English in Saudi Arabia (Al-Omrani, 2008).

Nowadays, only fifth of the population speaks English. It is the language of choice at work and travel. Many language institutes, schools and universities in Saudi Arabia that teach English language as a compulsory course prefer native English teachers because they claim that native teacher teach better English compared to non native English speakers (Mahboob, 2004).

Language specialists and educational experts are concerned with non-native teachers of English who may transfer their negative pronunciation and speaking habits to the students at this stage. But this situation is avoidable if teachers are well qualified. The time that students can start learning with a native English teacher is when they have the basic needs of conversational skills. This may help them acquire correct pronunciation and new vocabulary. Situation problem that might be shown at this stage is the issue of some native speakers who have inappropriate command of grammar; therefore it is important to hire qualified English native speakers (Alseweed & Daif-Allah, 2012).

Al-Omrani (2008) mentioned that within the Saudi context, students who plan to study in English speaking countries as a foreign language (EFL) programs in Saudi Arabia expect NNESTs to teach their EFL courses. But Saudi students who come to USA to study English as a second language (ESL) for academic purposes do not expect this at all. They expect that ESL classes to be taught by Americans for whom English is the mother tongue. As a matter of fact, some Saudi ESL students are surprised when a non-native speaker of English teaches an ESL class in the U.S. This situation can raise some questions regarding the 'effects of being taught by NNESTs on learning English as a second/foreign language’.

A central question that possibly characterizes the non-native English-speaking teacher literature is, 'who is best qualified to teach English: the native or the non-native teacher?' Many studies have described the relative strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native teachers by investigating student and/or teacher perceptions through surveys, interviews and journals (Braine, 1999 a; Kamhi-Stein, 2004). For example, native speakers are assumed to be superior in linguistic competence as compared to non-native speakers and are considered owners of a proper and authentic English. On the other hand, non-native English speaking teachers are credited with more conscious knowledge of grammar, language learning experience that they can share with learners, serving as good models and, the ability to empathize with language learners (Braine 1999 b).

Theories of second language acquisition have claimed that language input has a consistent positive effect in improving proficiency. These theories maintain that the input has to be comprehensible to the learner and modified through interactions. In vocabulary acquisition, the Input Hypothesis Krashen; (1982) has inspired studies of incidental vocabulary learning through reading and listening and analysis of teacher's talk as oral input. Elley (1989) conducted an experiment with children aged seven to eight concerning incidental vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. Elley found that these children, despite their varied abilities, gained 15% of the vocabulary without teacher explanation and 40% with teacher explanation. The highest gains were nouns and there was less improvement with adjectives and verbs. This finding accords with the belief about the imageability of words in dual-code theory (Paivio, 1986). The follow-up tests showed that the incidental vocabulary learning was relatively permanent. Elley identified three features that best predicted successful incidental vocabulary acquisition. They were the frequency of the word in the text, the depiction of the words in illustration and the amount of redundancy in the surrounding context.

In a more recent study, Vidal (2003) studied first-year university EFL student in Madrid University on their academic listening of lectures as lexical input for vocabulary expansion. She found that listening to lectures resulted in vocabulary gain. Greater vocabulary gain was highly correlated with lecture comprehension, frequency of word occurrence, word elaborations and types of vocabulary. These studies shedded light on incidental vocabulary acquisition from oral input, indicating that contextual variables, extent of elaboration, treatment of word and instructiveness are critical in determining whether teachers can produce effective language for incidental acquisition. In the field of English language teaching (ELT), a growing number of teachers are not native speakers of English.

Canagarajah (1999) states that 80% of the world's English language teachers are non-natives. The number of people worldwide learning English is steadily increasing, to the point where Kachru (1996) estimates that there are four non-native English speakers for each native English speaker. Despite these ratios, many countries such as Saudi Arabia, Oman, Kuwait and The United Arab Emirates still considers that foreign languages should be taught by native speakers of the language and therefore they actively recruit native speakers of English.

Phillipson (1992) labels this as the native speaker fallacy. Differences between NESTs and NNESTs have been amply discussed, and arguments in favour or against each one have been tossed back and forth.

In other words both native and non native English teachers must be qualified to achieve the target of learning goals. So, this study is significant because it is an immediate response to the urgent needs of the impact of native and non-native English teachers on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English courses at the University of Tabuk and it is an attempt to bridge the gap between the real level of the those students in English and the needed students' level.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The present study is conducted to assist English as foreign language (EFL) learners in higher education levels to understand the significance of native and non-native teachers' impact on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English language courses at the University of Tabuk, in the four language skills produced by Saudi students in their first year at the university.

This study would help EFL learners by providing them with new knowledge and skills to use English language skills professionally. Even though an EFL learner might possess practical knowledge of the grammar of English language, they might not possess the ability to communicate effectively and fluently. Therefore, this study which examines native and non-native teachers' impact on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English language courses hopes to provide learners with a deeper understanding and insight to enhance their awareness of the significance non-native and native speakers of English language in developing their linguistic competence and performance in a real situation.

This research study is also useful for EFL teachers. It would provide them with further insights that can be used significantly and enhance their teaching methods. It is hoped that the findings of this study will enable the teachers to provide more constructive feedback to their learners rather than

merely providing comments on whether their linguistic performance and language use is good or not. It would also help them by providing suggestions on the kind of teaching materials and textbooks that are to be used. In this regard, the findings and results of this research study can contribute significantly to research on developing English language proficiency in an EFL context, particularly in Saudi Arabia.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

A heated debate continues among language specialists about choosing native or non native English teachers. Most researchers recommend native speakers to help students speak about daily life situations, vocabulary, popular phrases and pronunciation that people use when they travel or live in an English speaking country. A native speaker is appropriate if the students' or learners' main goal is to learn how to communicate or to interact with native speakers easily (Al-Omrani, 2008).

On the other hand, if the students need to know more about the four skills, or students specialize in English then they need to choose professional non native English teachers who will provide them with an academic teaching that includes grammar, spelling and phonetics. Non native teachers are also familiar with the difficulties that face students while learning English. The native versus non-native teacher issue is very controversial from both pedagogical and sociolinguistic perspectives (Ling & Braine, 2007).

Medgyes (1992) argued that language teachers should reject any kind of discrimination on the basis of education, intelligence and mother tongue. Therefore, researchers need to pay more attention to the varieties between teachers rather than discriminate according to their countries. Then, the idea of proficiency was raised; as NESTs are more proficient than NNESTs, and this gives them superiority in teaching English language.

On the contrary, Medgyes (1996) who holds a PhD in applied linguistics and language pedagogy. At present, he is Director of the Centre for English Teacher Training at Eötvös Lor´nd University, Budapes, denies the claim that "…the more proficient in English, the more efficient in the classroom". According to researcher's experience, though some NESTs are proficient in English language, they are not efficient inside the classroom; they did not study enough teaching methodology before starting their career. Consequently, the homogeneity of NESTs and NNESTs division was broken, and NESTs as argued by Kachru, (1985) "seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to acquire data on the impact of native and non native English teachers on the achievement of Preparatory Year students at the University of Tabuk. In relation to this issue, this study aims to:
Examine the impact of native and non native teachers on the achievement of Tabuk Preparatory Year (PY) students.

1.5 Questions of the Study

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the present study aims to address the following research questions:

1- Is there an impact of native and non native teachers on University of Tabuk Preparatory Year students' achievement?
2- Are there any statically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) on University of Tabuk Preparatory Year students' achievement due to gender?

1.6 Operational Definition of Terms

Native Teachers: A native English teacher sometimes called a native English speaking teacher and abbreviated NEST, is an English teacher whose first language is English.

Non-Native Teachers: is an English teacher whose first language isn't English. English is a second or a foreign language.

English Course: a course that students should study fifteen hours a week to improve their proficiency in English before they undertake undergraduate study.

Preparatory Year: is a program that aims to prepare students for their undergraduate studies. Students may be exempted from a part of this program according of the implementation of the program exam rules.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study is applied in accordance with these limitations:

i. The study identified the impact of native and non native teachers on the Preparatory Year Students' Achievement in English Course at the University of Tabuk.
ii. The study was applied on the Preparatory Year students at the University of Tabuk.
iii. The study took place in the first semester of the academic year 2013 / 2014.

1.8 Summary

Having discussed the background, statement of the problem, objective, research questions, operational definition of terms, limitations and significance, it is hoped that this study will help EFL teachers and learners overcome English language proficiency problems at Preparatory Year level at the higher education stage in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It can also help teachers and learners of EFL to investigate proficiency and impact of native and non-native speaking teachers' problems in students' language skills through linguistic practices in Saudi universities context. It is assumed that the impact of native and non-native speaking teachers on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English courses is multidimensional in nature. However, it is significant to consider the impact of native and non-native speaking teachers on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English courses as vital in developing language proficiency and performance. This is done to establish language proficiency amongst Preparatory Year students at the University of Tabuk in Saudi Arabia as a mean to obtain an overall command and mastery of English as a foreign language.

Chapter Two
Theoretical Framework and Review of the Related Literature

2.1 Theoretical frame work

The idea of NS versus NNS has been around for a while. There has been a claim that the best English teacher is a native teacher. It began in the Commonwealth Conference on Teaching English as a Second Language. The most famous response to this idea is Phillipson (1992), he argues that non-native teachers can be trained to be as good in their abilities as possible to native speaker teachers.

There is a prevailing thought that NSs are better in the field of TESOL, and consequently a lot of research has been done to explore this controversial dichotomy. George Braine organized a colloquium the 1996 TESOL Convention. NNS expressed their feelings of being treated unfairly in the world of teaching English just because they are not native speakers. This succeeded and led to further meetings and presentations. Consequently, the field of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers appeared and developed. Nowadays, we have many articles on this matter.

NNEST started with the issues concerning NNESTs' self-perceptions (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy 1999; Reves & Medgyes 1994) and their credibility (Amin 1997; Braine 1999b; Thomas 1999; Tang 1997), the focus has shifted to students' and administrators' perceptions (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2005). Scholars have pointed out strengths that NNESTs bring to teaching and expressed that both NSs and NNSs can complement one another.

English has spread and became popular all over the world, which led to many issues; one of them is "nativeness", which is considered the most important one. "Nativeness" differentiates the native teacher from the non native one. Until this current time, there is no clear-cut definition of the term "native speaker" and it is still actively debated. Braine (1999), Kelch & Sanatana-Williamson (2002) and Mahboob (2004) agree that a precise definition for this term does not exist yet. Ellis (2002) says that it is impossible to define what a native speaking teacher is.

Modiano (1999) thinks that the ability to use English is a good way to decide whether someone is proficient in using the language or not. This means that birth should not be taken into consideration in deciding the "nativeness" of the language. Ellis (2002), acknowledges that in social and classroom settings, one can differentiate between native speakers and non-native speakers of English. From another perspective, Kramsch and Lam (1999) say "the degree of 'foreignness' that the language displays when it is represented

in writing, in print, or in electronic form" is what separates the native from the non-native.

All that raises a question of ‘who is best qualified to teach English – the native or the non-native teacher?’ Many studies have described the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native teachers by investigating student and/or teacher perceptions through surveys, interviews and journals (Braine 1999; Kamhi-Stein 2004). For example, one of the strengths of native teachers are quite clear in their accent, their competence and their command of the language while non-native teachers are more qualified in fields such as grammar and they have formal education in teaching the language, besides, they identify with the students and they understand their needs more than native teachers, basically they empathetic with their students (Widdowson 1994 and Braine 1999). Separating teachers into native and non-native speakers is one of the most difficult concepts in English language teaching despite of the advantages and disadvantages of such separation. Some researchers say that logically this separation does not exist (Rampton 1990) or that it is impossible to determine (Davies 1991), while others insist upon actively discarding this distinction (Kachru and Nelson 1996; Amin 2004).

2.1.1 The Importance of Experience for Native and Non-native English Teachers

Upon comparing native and non-native Spanish speakers regardless of their experience, Galloway (1980) found that non-native teachers tended to focus on grammatical forms and reacted more negatively to nonverbal behavior and slow speech, while non-teaching native speakers seemed to place more emphasis on content and on supporting students’ attempts at self-expression. Equally, Barnwell (1989) reported that untrained Spanish native speakers provided more difficult assessments than an ACTFL-trained Spanish rater. This result contradicts that of Galloway (1980), who found that untrained native speakers were more lenient than trained teachers. However, Barnwell suggested that it was difficult to draw results from both studies because they were small in scope. Hill (1997) further pointed out that the use of two different versions of rating scales in Barnwell’s study, one of which was presented in English and the other in Spanish, is a key point to be taken into consideration.

2.1.2 Who is "Better" native or non – native?

The assumption that NESTs are better teachers has never been agreed upon pedagogically. Bueno (2006) rejecting the idea that NESTs are better, says that “I do not know of any piece of research that has shown that they are

better teachers; however, the long-held belief that they are better is still there with no proof whatsoever to support such a theory."

Instead of looking at NSs and NNSs as two separated groups, comparing which one is better or more qualified to be teachers than the other, Matsuda. A & Matsuda. P (2001) Who work at ARIZONA State University emphasize cooperation and mutual help between NS and NNS teachers, since both groups of teachers have specific strengths and weaknesses. However, in spite of the existence of successful research experiences on NSs and NNSs cooperation, such as de Oliveira & Richardson (2001, 2004), they are still very difficult to find in the literature.

Many related studies don't reach a clear cut definition on who is better, NESTs or NNESTs, since each group have their own merits and demerits, (see for example Bueno, 2006; Laborda, 2006; Madrid & Canado, 2004; Matsuda and Matsuda, 2001; Liu and Zhang, 2007, Park, 2009).

Luksha and Solovova (2006), and after pointing out the advantages and disadvantages of both NSs and NNSs, argue that a good teacher is one who: knows the subject; is willing to share the knowledge; loves the job; is always ready for the unexpected; has plenty of patience. Other researchers looked at the cooperation between native speaking teachers with their non-native peers (Liu 2008). It improves the quality of teaching and outcome.

Giauque (1984) felt that NSs must have better training just like their NNSs peers (who usually get formal training as teachers) despite their knowledge of the language. They need to be qualified to teach, even their own language. This argument is supported by Rampton (1990), said that knowing is different from teaching, so just because you are born into a language, and just because you can speak that language, it doesn't mean that you can teach it. Native teachers know the language, but those who have no training don't know how to teach it, just like a traveller who knows the destination but needs the map of the way.

2.1.3 Difficulties that NNESTs Face

The native speaker fallacy resulted in a number of challenges with which NNESTs must deal with in the workplace and in their daily lives. The majority of English teachers in the world are not native speakers of English. NNESTs still struggle for equal treatment in the ELT profession. They face a number of challenges, including those related to accent and credibility in the workplace (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001).

2.1.3.1 Pronunciation of NNESTs

It is impractical to teach pronunciation with the goal of speaking like a native speaker. In fact, it is very discouraging to both teachers and students. Some linguists refer to this as the "perfection trap", (Morley 1992). A more practical approach is to aim for "listener-friendly pronunciation" (Kjellin 1999). This aim makes sense to a student who hopes to achieve something through conversations with native speakers, whether in the social or business sense. The disadvantage of non-native speaking teachers is that they tend to lack confidence in their own pronunciation. On the other hand, native speaking teachers have quite a different disadvantage: they are unaware of what kinds of elements are difficult to learners. Native speakers tend to assume that all aspects of spoken English are simply a natural part of human language, so they sometimes speak faster where they should speak slowly and point things out. Non-native speakers, on the other hand, know from their own experience what aspects of spoken English require extra care.

Unlike native teachers, non-native teachers have been overwhelmed by the things that their students find difficult. Native teachers know the language because they were born into it, while non-native teachers have a constant fear that their pronunciation might be inaccurate, as it doesn't reach the level of native teachers. (Medgyes, 1992). It is ok to have an accent if your mother tongue influences your pronunciation as long as you make yourself understood, for example, if you are Italian, it is perfectly acceptable to have an Italian accent when you teach English.

2.1.3.2 Accent of Non-Native Teacher

Accent is another main reason to take side when it comes to say who is better, NSs or NNSs. Many people usually complain about the non- native teachers' accent because their English sounds like their mother tongue. Most second language learners and their parents want native teachers to teach because they have a British or an American accent. However, Kim (2009) said that English is spoken language of not only whites, but also by many ethnic groups in many different countries and people from those ethnic groups have their own accents as well.

Because of the British colonization, many countries have chosen English to be the official language in their countries and this "English" is spoken with many different accents. It is, however, difficult to determine which accent is the original or the official accent in the English language. But, speakers of English from countries like India or Singapore were considered "less credible" when viewed as native speakers of English. Some people even claimed that they are less competent. (Thomas, 1999). There are many reports

of students resenting being taught by an Indian teacher, for example. Such teachers were only accepted by students after they proved to be very efficient teachers. (Maum, 2002). In reality, because non-native teachers speak more than one language, makes them tuned to their students' needs. (Canagarajah, 1999; Phillipson, 1992).

So, speaking a different accent does not mean that non-native teachers are not competent enough to be second language teachers. Their qualification depends on their successful teaching of English language and how students are able to see their awareness of language and their ability in the teaching process.

Having an acceptable accent has often been the reason for discriminating against non-native English teachers because they were always seen as less qualified by students and by employers too (Lippi-Green 1997). Other researchers (such as Canagarajah, 1999; Thomas, 1999) have found that speakers of English with Indian or Singaporean accents have been viewed as less competent than those from the "countries of the Inner Circle" (i.e., Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand). Kachru (1985). Lippi-Green (1997) thank that such questioning of teachers' ability and credibility based on their accent as a form of linguistic discrimination.

2.1.3.3 Fluency of Non-Native Teachers

Teaching English as a second or foreign language is not all about pronunciation. It is known that most non-native teachers find it difficult to produce English language sounds fluently. As English becoming popular and more international around the world, many students prefer to have native teachers for their second language learning rather than the non-native teachers. Then, they will be able to speak English language fluently wherever they go (they believe). In the aspect of second language teaching, fluency is closely related to the accuracy of speech production.

According to Derwing & Munro, (2004) fluency, the automaticity of speech production is an important aspect of successful communication. Speech rate, length and frequency of silent pauses and filled pauses, location of pauses and the run of speech between pauses are all strong indictors of oral fluency (Wood, 2001). Non-native teachers' speech tends to be redundant and clumsy due to the difficulty in finding the right structure at the right time. No one can change how they were born to be native or non-native speakers. Native teachers were just born with their English language competence, unlike non-native teachers who have to study and even memorize English language to use it in their language teaching. It is possible to gain fluency in English,

but the non-native teachers need lots of training to gain the ability of English fluency.

2.1.3.4 The Benefits of Using Students' Mother Tongue of NESTs

Another debatable issue is using mother tongue in the classroom. Some prefer to use it when they find difficulties that hinder learning in class. However, some forcefully do not agree to use it often as it stops students' learning and development. However, Medgyes (1992) said, "only non -NESTs can benefit from sharing the learners' mother tongue" (p. 347). Students feel more comfortable and learn quicker when they have non-native teachers who are able to guide them in the right way. For example, a native teacher can be able to explain the meaning of a difficult word to students in the English language, but students may not be able to comprehend what the teacher says. In this case, it would be easier for the students to have translation of the exact meaning of that word by the teacher. Then, using the students' mother tongue becomes a helpful source in second language teaching which also has various benefits for the students' learning and the teachers' teaching process.

Presenting and practising a new language is also disputative. When presenting the new language, we may use a various list of techniques such as gesture, mime, visual aids, giving definition, through a context or we can simply use translation. Before we use translation we should be certain that the other techniques failed or are inappropriate. For example abstract words are difficult to explain without using the mother tongue or some facts from life in English speaking countries can be said in the L1. Sometimes, as Podromou claims: "The foreign language leads the student to explore their own culture, using the mother-tongue as a bridge towards English.

One such study exploring FL teachers is that of Ferguson (2005), which was conducted at a southwestern American university with NS and NNS Spanish as a FL teachers and their students (N=89 and 154, respectively). She investigated how NS/NNS teachers are perceived by their students, in terms of students' general attitude and the amount of credit (in terms of pedagogical effectiveness) they give to their teachers based on their teacher's native language (L1). Among the findings of her study was a stronger student preference for NNS teachers over NS teachers, despite the larger amount of credit given to NS teachers over NNS teachers. From our perspective, Spanish is the most common FL studied at universities like the one featured in Ferguson's (2005) study.

Therefore, even though her study considered the NS/NNS issue in a non-English context, we cannot assume that her results will hold in other FL teaching situations. In short, Ferguson's study has left the question: Will the

same trend hold for language courses with less popular languages such as Japanese, Chinese, and Italian?

In this regard, Llurda (2004) claims that "non-native speaking teachers have been reported to have several advantages over native speakers, especially over those who are monolingual speakers of English" (p. 318). Additionally, Milambiling (2000) argues that the NNEST can be a good example of skilled second/foreign user because he or she can share knowledge and experience with the learners. Furthermore, Cook (1999) believes that "students may feel overwhelmed by native-speaker teachers who have achieved a perfection that is out of the students' reach", and adds that "students may prefer the fallible nonnative-speaker teacher who presents a more achievable model" (p. 200). One study that seems to support these ideas found that 17 non-native speaking graduate students majoring in TESOL described non-native English-speaking teachers as sensitive to their students' needs, more efficient and more familiar with students' background (Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

Traditionally, the NS/NNS issue has been connected exclusively with the teaching of English. This is expected given the large amounts of English language programs around the world which, due to necessity, hire many NNESTs. Thus, it is not uncommon around the world to attend English classes taught by NNESTs. Due to their high numbers and the nature of the TESOL academic field, NNESTs have found their critical voice to bring to everyone’s attention real inequities that exist.

However, research in the ELT context may not be applicable to situations outside of ELT. The current literature on the English context in regards to the NS/NNS issue does not tell us much about this particular issue in other language teaching contexts. We suspect that the current student attitudes toward NNS teachers of English are partly due to the hegemonic status of English around the world. Therefore, in order to really understand the NS/NNS issue, it is helpful to carry out research which investigates the NS/NNS question in contexts outside of ELT. This issue requires a more global perspective that considers the comparative situation of NNS teachers in FL classrooms such as Japanese, Chinese, Spanish, and Italian. There still are FL teachers who are identified as NNSs of the language they teach, who have not been viewed as target populations of research while the situation for NNEST has been discussed widely.

People might have the attitude or the belief in the necessity and superiority of a NS norm (Cook, 1999; Timmis, 2002), defined here as a standard which dictates that teachers, administrators, material designers, testing agencies, and even students themselves should measure the student’s performance in the second language against the language performance of a

monolingual speaker of a prestigious dialect of the target language (typically the "Received Pronunciation" of the United Kingdom or North America's "General American". The use of a NS norm places NNSTs at an obvious less rank as the result of their NNS status, especially in regards to issues like 'native-sounding accent' or decisions about whether a given usage sounds 'natural'. The use of a strict NS norm may force NNSTs to forfeit any claim to authority over English, heeding instead to the authority of NSs and NS produced sources (Tsui & Bunton, 2000), resulting in an identity that appears incompatible with the authoritative, language expert role expected of instructors of English by many students.

The term NNESTs has created a division among professionals in the ELT profession. Supporters of such term believe that it is necessary to distinguish between native and non-native-English-speaking teachers because their differences represent, in fact, their strengths and advantages. For instance, Maum (2002) validates that those who oppose the dichotomy feel that differentiating among teachers based on their status as native or non-native speakers perpetuates the dominance of the native speaker in the ELT profession and contributes to discrimination in hiring practices.

In an attempt to explore this idea, Mahboob (2004) investigated the status of non-native English teachers as ESL teachers in the USA. Using a questionnaire, he examined the hiring practices of the administrators of 118 college-level adult English language programs. Mahboob found that the number of NNESTs teaching ESL in the United States is low (only 7.9% of the teachers employed at these programs). Mahboob attributes the low figure to the preference given by most (59.8%) program administrators to 'native English speakers' in hiring practices.

Phillipson (1992) pointed out to the native speaker fallacy to refer to unfair treatment of qualified NNESTs. Supporting this view, Suarez (2000) points out that non-native teachers of English, finding themselves being compared to their native speaker colleagues in an unfair way, build the "I-am-not-a-native-speaker syndrome" (p.84), which has catastrophic effects on these individuals' self-esteem, and consequently on their performance. In this context, Kim, (2002) argues that some NNESTs are likely to suffer from lack of confidence in their language proficiency, regardless of its level.

Some researchers have attempted to describe alternative identities available to NNSTs that offer them the means of juggling their NNST identity with their need to speak as authority. At least two studies have explored pre-service and in-service NNSTs who developed alternative identities such as one based upon Cook's (1999) notion of multi-competence that holds the NNST to be a legitimate L2 user of English as opposed to a mere failed attempt at

copying a NS. Pavlenko (2003) collected professional narratives from students in a Master's of TESOL program. She found that theories such as Cook's multi-competence allowed her NNST participants "to construe themselves and their future students as legitimate L2 users rather than as failed native speakers of the target language" (p.251).

Golombek and Jordan (2005) similarly worked with students in a Master's of TESOL program who had also been exposed to Cook's theories. By the end of the course the researchers report that the participants had developed "other means, besides native-like pronunciation, to establish their legitimacy" (p. 513).

As a result, while it appears that the NS myth continues to exist and the NS norm seems as the overwhelming choice of standards for English language learning (Timmis, 2002) so to do alternative discourses that construct NNSTs as legitimate, authoritative users and instructors of English. The present study seeks to further our knowledge of such alternative discourses by examining the "juggling act" of one NNST, who successfully constructs an identity as NNS while still speaking with authority in his classroom about his second language, English.

Quirk (1990) clearly states that the use of non-native varieties of English as pedagogically acceptable models is unacceptable since these varieties are not adequately described (Elder and Davies, 2006). As for language attitudes, it is undeniable that native speaker norms are still regarded as an ideal by most ESL/EFL learners Studies on how native and non-native speakers approach the task of evaluating L2 learner performance are still relatively few in number and have yielded ambiguous findings. A number of such studies reveal harsher ratings among NNS raters compared to their NS counterparts (Fayer and Krasinski, 1987; Ross, 1979; Santos, 1988), while others have found the opposite to be true (e.g., Barnwell, 1989; Hill, 1997). Some studies indicate that NNS raters are more consistent than NS (Brown, 1995; Hill, 1997), whereas others demonstrate the opposite (Shi, 2001).

A third group of studies shows no language background differences, either with respect to severity (Brown, 1995; Kim, 2009; Shi, 2001), or consistency (Kim, 2009). Qualitative analyses offer a shadier picture, with recent studies showing differences in number of comments and weighting of features by raters from NS and NNS language backgrounds (Kim, 2009; Shi, 2001), although the reason for these differences remains obscure.

Amin (2004) argues that the native speaker norm results in dividing the English language teaching profession according to a class system and that it should be eliminated. Kachru and Nelson (1996) argue that viewing teachers through the lens of the native/non-native dichotomy maintains a monocultural

and monolingual point of reference. Widdowson (1994) suggests that teaching English is not a biological privilege; it is a skill or a craft that can be learned and mastered. Widdowson says that when the emphasis is moved from the contexts of use to contexts of learning, the advantage that native speaker teachers have disappears.

Widdowson (1994) argues that native speakers have ‘no say… no right to intervene or pass judgment’ on how English develops internationally. Widdowson (1994) also notes that giving priority to the use of authentic, naturally occurring English for instructional purposes privileges native speaker teachers, making them ‘custodians and arbiters not only of proper English but of proper pedagogy as well’.

Lee (2005) suggests six defining features of a native speaker that some authors such as Kubota (2004); Maum (2002) and Medgyes (1992) support and agree with. These are: "the individual acquired the language in early childhood and maintains the use of the language, the individual has intuitive knowledge of the language, the individual is able to produce fluent, spontaneous discourse, the individual is communicatively competent and able to communicate within different social settings, the individual identifies with or is identified by a language community, and the individual does not have a foreign accent." Many researchers have declared that the definition of native and non-native speakers is problematic and unfair (Chang, 2007; Liu, 2008; Medgyes, 1992).

Being a monolingual speaker of a language (which is rare) and being born in a particular place does not adequately facilitate the quest in defining the native speaker since many native speakers of a language do, in fact, speak other languages besides their own; and monolinguals may be the exception rather than the norm (Maum, 2002).

In their research, Samimy & Brutt-Griffler (1999) surveyed and interviewed 177 non-native graduate students from Korea, Japan, Turkey, Surinam, China, Togo, Burkina Faso, and Russia. In addition to using a questionnaire they used classroom discussions, and in-depth interviews. They identified the NESTs as being informal, fluent, accurate, using several techniques, methods, and approaches, being flexible, using conversational English, using authentic English, giving positive feedback to students, and having communication as the goals of their teaching. NNESTs were perceived as depending merely on textbooks, applying differences between the first and second languages, being aware of negative transfer and psychological aspects of learning, being sensitive to the needs of students, being more efficient, knowing the students' background, and having exam preparation as the goal of

their teaching. However, they did not consider the former to be superior to the latter.

Phillipson (1996) used the phrase “the native speaker fallacy” to refer to unfair treatment of qualified NNESTs. The term was coined as a reaction to the tenet created at the 1961 Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language in Macarere, Uganda, which stated that the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker. There is no doubt that native speakers of a language have a feel for its nuances, are comfortable using its idiomatic expressions, and speak it fluently. However, the Macarere tenet is flawed: People do not become qualified to teach English merely because they were born with it as their mother tongue, and much of the knowledge that native speakers bring intrinsically to the ESL classroom can be learned by NNESTs through teacher training.

Phillipson (1996), for example, states that non-native speakers can learn to use idioms appropriately, to appreciate the cultural connotations of the language, and to determine whether a given language form is correct. Moreover, there are several ways in which non-native teachers are at an advantage in teaching English.

Cheung (2002) reported that NESTs had better oral skills, greater vocabulary, and insight into “Western” (presumably British, Australasian and North American) culture. On the other hand, their lexico-grammatical knowledge was poor and they struggled to explain complex constructions. In addition, some teachers lacked understanding of language teaching methodology. Similar findings emerged from Mahboob’s (2004) study of 32 L2 learners in an intensive English program in the USA. Conversely, the non-NESTs in these two studies were valued for their own experience as language learners, their use of strict methodology and their work ethic; however, they were perceived as having weaker oral skills and less cultural insight than their native-speaker counterparts.

Benke and Medgyes’ (2005) revealed that native-speaker teachers were viewed as good models for imitation; however, their speech could be difficult for L2 learners to comprehend. 76 learners in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) study at a university in the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain preferred NESTs for learning pronunciation, speaking and listening, but not for studying lexico-grammatical aspects of the language.

Pacek’s (2005) revealed a bigger concern for teachers’ engagement, preparation, qualifications, and professional background than for their linguistic background. Having learned the target language through conscious study rather than childhood acquisition, non-NESTs “may have a sounder grasp of English grammar and even be more effective…than the so-called

native speakers" (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 80) in teaching lexical, grammatical and metacognitive skills (Mahboob, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999). And if explanations about grammar are ineffective or insufficient in the L2, non-NESTs who share their students' L1 may use the shared L1 to facilitate understanding (Cook, 2005).

NNESTs are also valuable models of successful language learners (Medgyes, 1999) who can anticipate and empathize with their students' learning difficulties (Kelch & Santana-Williamson, 2002; Seidlhofer, 1999).

One issue identified in studies by Moussu (2002) is NNESTs' English pronunciation, which learners deemed an inadequate model for their own L2 pronunciation. However, there is evidence that some language learners struggle to differentiate between native and non-native English pronunciation. Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) tested L2 learners' ability to distinguish native from non-native speakers by playing recordings of both reading from the same text and asking them to identify the speakers' linguistic background. The learners identified this correctly only 45% of the time. Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) found that ESL students were not capable of distinguishing between an native English-speaking and an NNES teacher accent ―with a high degree of accuracy (p. 62) and that they attributed positive characteristics to teachers who were perceived to be native speakers. In Kelch and Santana-Williamson's study, the students' perceptions about the teachers were attributed to their degree of familiarity with the different varieties of English spoken by the teachers.

In a similar study, Chiba, Matsuura and Yamamoto (1995) played Japanese university students a short English passage spoken by nine English speakers from Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Great Britain, and the United States and asked them to identify the different varieties of English. Only one third of the respondents could accurately point out the British and American accents, and roughly half of the respondents misidentified the Japanese English speakers as coming from elsewhere in Asia.

Research on non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) is a fairly recent phenomenon as issues relating to such matters used to be politically incorrect to be studied and discussed openly (Zughoul, 2003). The place of nonnative speakers as English teachers has probably been an issue as long as English has been taught internationally. However, the majority of students worldwide learn English in foreign language contexts, and, consequently, most English teachers work in such contexts too (Cook, 1999). In addition, most English language learners in the world are taught by NNES teachers (Bulter, 2007; Evrim, 2007). Medgyes's work in the early 1990s (1992, 1994) has laid emphasis on issues relating to NNESTs in the area of teachers' self-

perceptions as well as learners' perceptions of their EFL teachers whether they are native or non-native. Issues relating to NNESTs and NESTs have been studied by many researchers (Widdowson, 1994).

In short, according to Medgyes, teachers that are either apathetic or aggressive feel guilty because they try to reach a native command of English, and this goal is unreachable. Medgyes believes that the only possible cure is from the very beginning, for non-NESTs to state to their students that they are themselves simply more advanced learners of English. Medgyes' beliefs that a non-NEST will always be unable to acquire a native command of English can be better understood within Selinker's Interlanguage continuum. Medgyes points out that in 1972 Selinker designed a way to explain the development of L2 students.

It sounds that English language instructors have a need to construct identities that are compatible with their students' expectations about what constitutes an authority of the language. Traditionally, this has been thought of as the exclusive territory of NSs of the language as reflected in such beliefs as the 'native speaker' fallacy (see Phillipson, 1992), which states that NSs are the ideal instructors of English (or by extension any language). The prevalence of this belief allows NSs to have assumed authority from an aspect of their identity, which they are easily able to index.

For example, Tsui and Bunton (2000) found that on a discussion board used by English language instructors in Hong Kong, NS instructors were more likely to appeal to their own intuitions about the language as evidence of their beliefs about linguistic matters due to their identities as NSs, an identity that apparently in this community carries with it authority over all aspects of the language not just within the classroom but even among other instructors. Students themselves do not appear to be immune from this belief. First, Braine (1999) in his discussion of his own teaching experience claims that threats to his authority and credibility from students as a result of his NNS status were a fairly common problem for him.

Thomas (1999), in her own discussion of her teaching experience, reports similar attacks to her credibility and challenges to her authority and also adds that ESL students often felt disappointed at the idea of being assigned a NNST rather than a NST. Amin (1997) reports similar problems for herself as a NNST. Furthermore, Butler's (2007) work on the attitudes elementary school students held toward two different guises – one NNST and one NST – in a matched guise test, suggests that the young Korean students in her study held strong opinions about teaching quality, style, and other factors based merely on the speaker's 'native' or 'non-native' accent.

2.2 Review of the Related Literature

Research on educational issues has developed rapidly over the past two decades. Investigation of the impact of native and non-native teachers' impact on students' achievement in English courses is one of the most specific areas that have gained prominence (Subtirelu, 2011). The significance of such studies cannot be denied as linguistic knowledge can be a helpful insight to provide solutions to language and education based-problems (Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012).

This section reviews related research on lexical cohesion and coherence and their contributions.

Meadows & Muramatsu (2007) carried out a study to analyze native speaker or non-native speaking teachers. A report of student preferences in four different foreign language classrooms. The goal of the study was to expand the scope of this issue by exploring student attitudes and preferences toward NS/NNS teachers in non-ELT contexts in order to allow more reasonable generalizations. This study was conducted in USA. The study used a mixed-method (questionnaire and interview) to explore student perceptions of NS/NNS teachers in four foreign language (FL) courses (Japanese, Chinese, Spanish, and Italian) at a southwestern American university. Data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively based on the categorization of geographically divided language groups (i.e. Asian/ European). Questionnaire results revealed a stronger student preference for NS teachers in Asian language classrooms than in European counterparts. However, interview results showed that student attitudes are not unequivocal.

Interview results surface themes such as students' conflicting expectations of roles, favorable attitudes toward NS/NNS teacher combination, and the link between language learning goals and NS/NNS preference. Counterintuitive results from Italian language classes (resemblance to those from Asian language classes rather than those from Spanish classes) brought into question the geographically-based categories used for analysis. It is inferred that two possible influences on this contrastive behavior between students in Spanish and Italian classes are the prominent position of Spanish as the 'default' FL in the region and student motivation for learning. Based on the findings, suggestions to language program administrators are provided aimed to address the hiring inequities that result from misconceptions about NNS teachers in FL classrooms.

Liu & Zhang (2007) examined the student perceptions of native & non-native English teachers' attitudes, teaching skills assessment and performance. The sample of the study consisted of two 65 (53 girls and 12 boys) third year college students majoring in English language and literature from English

department of a key national university in South China took part in the survey and 14 Chinese teachers. Native English-speaking teachers have played an important role in China's foreign language teaching. Every university in China now has native English teachers teaching various English courses to students of different levels. There are, however, few systematic studies on the differences between Non-native English-speaking teachers and Native English-speaking teachers in China. This paper attempted to identify the differences between these two groups of teachers in terms of attitude, means of instruction and teaching results as perceived by the students.

Kim (2009) investigated native and non-native teachers' judgments of oral English performance: a mixed method approach to examine how native English-speaking (NS) and non-native English-speaking (NNS) teachers assess students' oral English performance. This empirical study used a semi-direct oral English test as the research instrument. The evaluation behaviors of two groups of teachers (12 Canadian NS teachers and 12 Korean NNS teachers) which consisted the sample of the study were compared with regard to internal consistency, severity, and evaluation criteria. Findings of a many-faceted Rasch Measurement analysis showed that most of the NS and NNS teachers maintained acceptable levels of internal consistency, with only one or two inconsistent raters in each group. The two groups of teachers also exhibited similar severity patterns across different tasks.

However, substantial dissimilarities emerged in the evaluation criteria teachers used to assess students' performance. A qualitative analysis demonstrated that the judgments of the NS teachers were more detailed and elaborate than those of the NNS teachers in the areas of pronunciation, specific grammar use, and the accuracy of transferred information. These findings are used as the basis for a discussion of NS versus NNS teachers as language assessors on the one hand and the usefulness of mixed methods inquiries on the other.

In another study by Moores-Abdool, Yahya & Unzueta (2009) Presented at referred international conference, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of Language Teachers (KSAALT), Al-Khobar, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which aims to investigate learning preferences of Saudi University students with native English speaking teachers; this exploratory study surveyed 310 Saudi female university students enrolled in university TEFL programs. The findings of this study showed that students are open to the student-centered learning approach, with certain activities within the student-centered learning approach being more favorably preferred. Implications from this study clearly display that teacher training programs should seriously

examine and implement innovative ways of teaching English for their pre-service teachers.

Ramila (2009) conducted a research to analyze the different scaffolding techniques of native and non-native teachers of English in a second language acquisition context with very young students. This study was carried out in Spain. It included a longitudinal study of spoken English at 6 schools that teach English from preschool onwards in Madrid. The researcher used scaffolding technique as the research instrument. The data was gathered from the UAM-Corpus and consisted of four classes with six-year-old children at a similar level of immersion, two of two native teachers and two of two non-native teachers. The findings of the study showed that native teachers rely more on elaborating their language, whereas non-native teachers rely on eliciting.

Hsieh (2010) investigated teaching young children English: experiences of native and non-native English speaking teachers. As a contribution to the existing literature dedicated to the differences between native and non-native English speaking teachers, the primary purpose of this study is to provide a different perspective that explores English teachers' common experiences working in early childhood programs. The underlying assumption is that most early childhood English language teachers, having no specific training in teaching young children English, may share similar experiences. Four teachers representing different backgrounds were included in this study. Data were collected through interviews and classroom observations. Six common teaching experiences were identified and discussed in six areas: (1) easy access to the position but lack of training in early childhood education, (2) English as the sole medium of instruction, (3) encouraging children to speak English as a common practice, (4) teaching English in isolation, (5) teaching as accommodation, and (6) teaching English as a process, not as an end. Suggestions and directions for future research were also addressed.

Tang (2011) conducted a study to investigate non-native teacher talk as lexical input in the foreign language classroom. The research explored the lexical variation (LV) ratio of non-native teacher talk and the percentage of words teachers used at different vocabulary levels to determine the lexical richness in a foreign language classroom. The study was conducted in China. The sample of the study consisted of 6 teachers with five to ten years of teaching experience from three Chinese universities. They were invited to make a one week recording of their English teaching to the non-English major freshmen. The researcher used tape recorder as the research instrument. The findings of the research showed that classroom data revealed that teachers' oral input failed to provide a lexically rich environment as the teacher talk was

limited in both variation and frequency range. This study recommended that ways to enhance the lexical environment should be investigated in further future research.

Similarly, Zhang (2011) examined the judgments of oral proficiency by non-native and native English speaking teacher raters: competing or complementary constructs. This paper reports the findings of an empirical study on ESL/EFL teachers' evaluation and interpretation of oral English proficiency as elicited by the national College English Test-Spoken English Test (CET-SET) of China. Informed by debates on the issue of native speaker (NS) norms which have become the focus of attention in recent years, this study addresses the question of whether judgments of language proficiency by non-native English speaking (NNES) teachers, who are currently used to assess performance on the CET-SET, correspond to those of native English speaking (NES) teachers or whether the two groups draw on different constructs of oral proficiency.

Data for the study were derived from two sources: unguided holistic ratings given by a group of 19 NES and 20 NNES teachers to CET-SET speech samples from 30 test-takers, and written comments to justify the ratings assigned. Results yielded by both quantitative (MFRM) and qualitative analyses of teacher data, revealed no significant difference in raters' holistic judgments of the speech samples and a broad level of agreement between groups on the construct components of oral English proficiency. However, the analysis of raters' comments revealed both quantitative and qualitative differences in the way NES and NNES teachers weighed various features of the oral proficiency construct in justifying the decisions made. The paper is concluded by considering the implications of the study's findings for debates about the native speaker norm as the target for language learners and test-takers.

Subtirelu (2011) conducted a research to investigate juggling identity and authority: a case study of one non-native instructor of English. The researchers used classroom meetings and interviews as research instruments. Identity and authority, however, are in conflict in the context of NNSTs ['non-native' speaking teachers] of English (and other languages). Commonly-held beliefs like the "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992), which holds that 'native' speakers are the ideal teachers of a language, pose a threat to a NNST's ability to speak with authority in the classroom, requiring the construction of an identity that is authoritative without being 'native'. In light of this, a case study was undertaken of one NNST teaching a grammar course in a US setting.The findings revealed that the participant uses a variety of strategies to juggle his 'non-native' speaker status and his need to speak as

authority in the classroom. In particular, it was found that the participant constructs an identity as linguist allowing him to successfully maintain his authority. Implications for teaching and teacher training are discussed.

Likewise, Al-Nawrasy (2012) conducted a study to investigate the effect of the native English language teachers in comparison with non-native English language teachers on students' achievement in speaking skills. The subjects of the study were 6 native English teachers (NESTs) and 6 non-native English teachers (NNESTs), and their 196 10^{th}-grade students in the Institute of Applied Technology in the UAE. The instrument of the study was a speaking test implemented at the end of term one of the academic year 2008/2009. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference among students' overall speaking achievement test scores amongst 10th graders at (ά =0.05) due to the native-ness of the teacher. However, the in depth analysis showed that there was a significant correlation between native-ness and pronunciation in favour of the NESTs and a significant correlation between accuracy and nativeness in favour of the NNESTs.

Walkinshaw & Duong (2012) examined native- and non-native speaking English teachers in Vietnam: weighing the benefits. 50 Vietnamese learners of English evaluated the importance of native-speakerness compared with seven qualities valued in an English language teacher: teaching experience, qualifications, friendliness, enthusiasm, the ability to deliver interesting and informative classes, understanding of students' local culture, and advanced English communicative competence. Data were collected using two instruments, which were constructed around the above-mentioned framework; a rating survey that employed bipolar semantic differential scales, which elicited a graduated response about the value participants placed on native-speakerness compared with the seven characteristics listed in the Language Teacher Characteristic framework and an open-ended self-report questionnaire.

Findings show that the respondents placed more value on all but one of these qualities than on native-speakerness. The only outlier was advanced English competence and respondents selected innate native-speakerness over this quality because they believed that native-speaker pronunciation was the ideal model. These findings build on a growing body of research that challenges the notion that native speakers of English are ideal English language teachers.

Alseweed (2012) analyzed university students' perceptions of the influence of native and non-native teachers. This research reports the outcome of a study carried out in Qassim University with 169 Saudi male novice university students to obtain a deeper insight into their perceptions of their

native English speaker teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) in the English language classroom. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected in two stages by means of students' questionnaires and interviews. The results reveal statistical significant difference in the respondents' perceptions in favour of NESTs. Students showed more preference for NESTs as they go to higher levels. Students previous learning experiences may affect their general preference for NESTs since they were taught by both types of teachers. Subjects also exhibited an explicit preference for NESTs in relation to the teaching strategies adopted. However, the respondents showed moderately favorable attitudes towards NNESTs who provide a serious learning environment and a favorable response to learners' needs.

In conclusion, the researcher agrees with the above discussed studies that native and non-native teachers have great contribution to the process of learning a foreign language. In addition, any kind of investigation should always start with native and non-native teachers or speakers as they contain the basic components of language learning (Zhang, 2011).

Although, there are many studies that investigated the role of native and non-native speakers in the learning process, no studies have so far examined native and non-native teachers' impact on students' achievement in English courses to be more particular in a Saudi context. In this regard, the present study aims at investigating native and non-native teachers' impact on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in English courses at the University of Tabuk.

2.3 Summary

In brief, non-native teachers can never be treated or seen as native speakers especially in teaching English as a second language. Most native teachers have more chances to be employed at different workplaces where non-native teachers are seen as unqualified to teach English or simply less qualified compared to native teachers. Not only second language learners, but sometimes even the parents, view non-native teachers as lacking of various aspects in English such as pronunciation, accent, and fluency. However, this is not true because it is bias obviously. Non-native teachers can very well teach English as a foreign or second language. And it is true that native teachers cannot teach English as a foreign or second language. Non-native speakers have a lot of chances to succeed in teaching the second language once they turn their weaknesses into strengths.

Chapter Three
Design and Methodology

This chapter discusses the research methodology and techniques used in the context of this study. In addition, it sets out the rationale for the methodology used and describes the considerations that influenced the development of research techniques and procedures. It also provides a description on the study population, sample, variables, instruments, procedures, and statistical analysis that he uses in the study.

3.1 Population of the Study

The population of this study consisted of all male and female Preparatory Year students at University of Tabuk during the academic year 2013 / 2014. The number of male and female students' population is almost (3800) students.

3.2 Sample of the Study

The study sample consisted of eight groups from the intermediate level, four male groups (128 students) and four female groups (128). Two of the male groups were taught by Native Speaker and two groups were taught by Non Native Speakers and the same situation in the female section. That is, the sample of the study consisted of 256 students. Each group consisted of 32 students. All of these students finished the first semester of the academic year 2013 / 2014. All of these students study fifteen hours of English per week and all of them came from the secondary school to the university directly.

3.2.1 The Selection of the Sample of the Study

This study used a random sampling process for the Preparatory Year students at the English Language Course at the University of Tabuk in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to answer the research questions. All the individuals in the defined population have equal and independent chance of being selected.

3.3. The Instrument of the Study

To achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher developed an achievement test; a pre/post test was constructed to measure students' level in English. The test consisted of four parts listening, reading, writing, structure each part consists of four multiple choice questions. A speaking test was also conducted to measure the students' level in speaking skill. The researcher depended on the **"Text Book"** to design the research instruments.

3.4. Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

3.4.1 Validity

To ensure the validity of the test, it was submitted to a jury of specialists; two EFL professors at Mutah University, two EFL professors at University of Tabuk three supervisors who work at the English department at University of Tabuk and three English teachers work at the English Department in the Preparatory Year program at University of Tabuk. Suggestions forwarded by the jury were taken into consideration as they were quite important and valuable.

3.4.2 Reliability

To insure the reliability of the test it was applied to twenty students who were excluded from the sample. The reliability of the test was calculated using correlation coefficient and found to be 0.87 on Cronbach's Alpha scale which is appropriate for conducting the study.

3.5 Instructional Material

The instructional material was the third edition of North Star Two by Robin Mills and Laurie Frazier which is taught to the Preparatory Year students at the University of Tabuk. The researcher covered only the first four units during the application period. The text book contains all skills listening, speaking, reading, writing and structure.

3.6 Procedures of the Study

The following procedures were used to implement the study:

1. Obtaining the approval from Mutah University and University of Tabuk.
2. Selecting the population of the sample of the study.
3. Reviewing the related literature.
4. Preparing the achievement test (appendix, 2).
5. Ensuring the validity and reliability of the test.
6. Applying the achievement test.
7. Analyzing the gathered data.
8. Discussing of the results was conducted.
9. Recommendations were formulated.

3.7 Data Analysis

In connection to the discussion on the methods and procedures of data collection, it is essential to elaborate here on the approaches used in analyzing the data collected. This section discusses how data collected from the different

sources were analyzed. The researcher used a descriptive statistical analysis T-test (means and standard deviations).

3.7.1 Pre-test: (T-test)

To ensure of the equality of the two groups the researcher prepared a pre-test for these targeted groups. After the researcher decided the classes where the experiment should take place, he made the test on the sample of the study. The test consisted of five main parts, each part includes four multiple choice items, except the speaking test which was only oral test (appendix), and it was done before the beginning of the experiment. The pre-test was set in order to know the degree of equality in information in both groups male, female in English language course, after these procedures the researcher calculated the degrees of both male, female and he emptied these results in order to make the statistical processing and to measure the differences in results between (native teacher's group) and (non-native teacher's group). T-test was used for the independent results in order to measure the significant statistical differences between the average scoring within the two groups in the pre-test and post –test for the achievement test.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement according to Groups Taught by Native and Non-Native Speakers on the Pre – test

Skill	Teacher	No.	Means	Std.	t	Sig.
Listening	Native	128	10.44	2.41	0.713	0.476
	Non	128	10.23	2.32		
Reading	Native	128	11.04	2.25	1.793	0.074
	Non	128	10.55	2.14		
Writing	Native	128	10.77	2.14	1.519	0.130
	Non	128	10.35	2.22		
Structure	Native	128	12.03	2.29	1.674	0.095
	Non	128	11.58	2.03		
Speaking	Native	128	10.88	1.88	1.317	0.189
	Non	128	10.57	1.91		
Total	Native	128	55.16	9.94	1.559	0.120
	Non	128	53.27	9.38		

As depicted in Table 4, there is no statistical significant difference at ($\alpha \geq 0.05$) in the performance of the sample of the study in the pre-test and also the results are the same according to the (native, non native variable), which shows that the study groups are equal.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has discussed several issues relevant to the research methodology of the present study. These include the sampling procedures, design of the study, and the development of the research instruments, procedures, and analysis of the experimental data. This study had an experimental group design so that a valid overview may be made about the impact on native and non-native speaker teachers on the Preparatory Year students' achievement in the English course at the University of Tabuk. The design of the experimental procedures will take into account the factors that may affect both internal and external validity so that a sensible balance between the two can be created. Appropriate action has been conducted to create a reasonable and reliable design so that the findings of this experimental study would not be impaired by the influence of the different extraneous variables.

However, it is essential that conditions under which this experimental study is conducted are not too controlled as it may become artificial. Hence, care has been taken to ensure that the achievement tests are conducted in conditions with little interference as possible to the routines of normal classroom conditions. This ensured that the results of this experimental study can be generalized with a better degree of confidence to other populations.

Chapter Four
Findings, Discussions and Recommendations

4. 1 Findings of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of native and non native English teachers on the achievement of Preparatory Year students at the University of Tabuk. The study attempted to answer the following research question respectively:

Is there an impact of native and non native teachers on the achievement of Tabuk Preparatory Year (PY) students?

Post-test:

After making sure that both groups in the sample of the study were equal, the researcher used a native speaker to teach the first group, while the other group was taught by a non-native speaking teacher, and to make sure of the study hypothesis, all data were statistically processed by using (t-test) as the following:

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement according to Groups Taught by Native and Non Native Speakers on the Post – test

Skill	Teacher	No.	Means	Std.	t	Sig.
Listening	Native	128	15.71	2.31	3.77	0.00
	Non	128	14.59	2.43		
Reading	Native	128	14.96	2.21	0.699	0.485
	Non	128	15.16	2.26		
Writing	Native	128	13.67	2.25	7.695	0.00
	Non	128	15.84	2.31		
Structure	Native	128	15.18	2.05	7.796	0.00
	Non	128	17.19	2.07		
Speaking	Native	128	16.66	2.00	5.530	0.00
	Non	128	15.22	2.18		
Total	Native	128	76.19	9.71	1.423	0.15
	Non	128	77.99	10.57		

Having viewed the results of the (T-test) in Table 2 above, it is observed the following:

1. There are no statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the post-test (total grade).
2. There are statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ in the post-test results of the two groups in the (Speaking and Listening) in favour of the first group (students taught by native speaker teacher).

3. There are statistical differences at α≥0.05 between the results of the two groups in the (Structure and Writing) post-test and that was in favour of the second group (students taught by Arab teacher).
4. There are no statistical differences at α≥0.05 between the results of the post-test at (Reading) test

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement according to the Male Groups Taught by Native and Non Native Speakers on the Post – test

Skill	teacher	No.	Means	Std.	t	Sig.
Listening	Native	64	14.39	2.03	3.725	0.00
	Non	64	13.09	1.91		
Reading	Native	64	13.55	1.72	0.363	0.717
	Non	64	13.66	1.69		
Writing	Native	64	12.91	1.97	4.332	0.00
	Non	64	14.34	1.78		
Structure	Native	64	13.95	1.61	6.410	0.00
	Non	64	15.73	1.54		
Speaking	Native	64	15.48	1.72	6.054	0.00
	Non	64	13.72	1.58		
Total	Native	64	70.28	7.85	0.195	0.846
	Non	64	70.55	7.59		

Having depicted the results of the (T-test) in Table 3, it is noticed the following:

1. There are no statistical differences at α≥0.05 between the results of the post-test (total grade).
2. There are statistical differences at α≥0.05 in the post-test results of the two groups in the (Speaking and Listening) in favour of the first group (students taught by native speaker teacher).
3. There are statistical differences at α≥0.05 between the results of the two groups in the (Structure and Writing) post-test and that was in favour of the second group (students taught by Arab teacher).
4. There are no statistical differences at α≥0.05 between the results of the post-test at (Reading) test.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement according to the female groups taught by native and non native speakers on the Post – test, as displayed in the next section

Skill	teacher	No.	Means	Std.	T	Sig.
Listening	Native	64	17.03	1.77	2.880	0.005
	Non	64	16.09	1.91		
Reading	Native	64	16.38	1.68	0.945	0.347
	Non	64	16.66	1.69		
Writing	Native	64	14.44	2.26	8.081	0.000
	Non	64	17.33	1.76		
Structure	Native	64	16.41	1.69	8.135	0.000
	Non	64	18.64	1.41		
Speaking	Native	64	17.84	1.51	4.115	0.000
	Non	64	16.72	1.58		
Total	Native	64	82.09	7.58	2.524	0.13
	Non	64	85.44	7.41		

By viewing the results of (T-test) in Table 4, it is noticed the following:

1. No statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the post-test due to gender.
2. There are statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ in the post-test results of the two groups in the (Speaking and Listening) in favour of the first group (students taught by native speaker teacher).
3. There are statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the two groups in the (Structure and Writing) post-test and that was in favour of the second group (students taught by Arab teacher).
4. There are no statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the post - test at (Reading) test.

4.2 Discussion of the Results and Recommendations

The main aim of this study was to examine the impact of Native and non Native teachers on the achievement on the Preparatory year students at the University of Tabuk. The whole process took place over four weeks' period. This part discusses the results obtained after analyzing the data, which were collected through the study. The findings of this study reveal the following:

1- There are statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ in the post-test results of the two groups in the (Speaking and Listening) in favour of the first group (students taught by native speaker teacher).

This result agreed with previous studies such as(Al-Omrani,2008; Benke & Medgyes' 2005; Elley, 1989; Wood 2001) which stated that the Learners performances of studying oral skills, conversation and listening are in favour of NESTs. This result was also supported by the results of some studies such as (Vidal, 2003; Krashen, 1982; Alseweed, 2012, Moussu, 2002).

2- There are statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the two groups in the (Structure and Writing) post-test and that was in favour of the second group (students taught by Non Native teacher).

Data analysis results which concur with Al-Omrani (2008) revealed that students prefer to study grammar with NNESTs. This result also agreed with previous studies such as (paceks',2005 ; Mahboob, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999).

3- There are no statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ between the results of the post-test at (Reading) test

This agreed with the results of Tang, (1997) that believed that NESTs were superior to NNESTs in reading (72 per cent). Although somw studies disagreed with this result such as (Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012).

4- There are no statistical differences at $\alpha \geq 0.05$ in the students' achievement due to gender.

Ameen (2004) revealed results that disagree with this result but some other studies such as (Fox, 1992 and Moussu, 2006) agree with theis result. That they consider gender is not an effective factor to show the impact of NNESTs AND nests.

The researcher believes that the reason of such results could be attributed to the following:

1. The equivalence of male and females in the educational background, social and economical circumstances.
2. The equivalence in the sample of the study.
3. The closeness of readiness, interests, and wishes toward achievement for both males and females.

It is very clear that the result of this study was consistent with the results of the previous studies although it differed in the size of the sample, the age of the subjects, the instructional material, the population and the curriculum.

In light of results of this study, the research proposed the following recommendations to the concern.

i. It is highly recommended to alter the hiring criteria for both native and non-native speakers of English to avoid discrimination and to ensure better quality because speaking the language doesn't mean that you can teach it and also there are so many non-native English speakers that are highly-qualified and talented and they can prove very proficient in the classroom (Rampton, 1990 ; Perdreau, 1994).
ii. Encouraging collaboration of NESTs and NNESTs.
iii. Team-teaching approach in which a NEST and a NNEST share the same class develops cross-cultural awareness and boosts the confidence of the non-native teachers.
iv. The study recommends further research on the effect of gender on influencing students' explicit and implicit attitudes towards their NESTs and NNESTs and on larger sample sizes in various geographical regions.

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Appendix (I)
Instructional Material


NORTHSTAR 2
LISTENING AND SPEAKING
THIRD EDITION
Laurie Frazier
Robin Mills


PEARSON
Longman

CONTENTS

UNIT 1

Offbeat Jobs



1 FOCUS ON THE TOPIC

A PREDICT

Look at the pictures and discuss the questions with the class.

1. What is each person doing?
2. Which of these jobs are ordinary? Which are unusual?
3. Read the title of the unit. *Offbeat* means unusual. Can you think of any other offbeat jobs?

B SHARE INFORMATION

Look at the list of things to consider when choosing a job. Number the items in order of importance from ***1*** *to* ***7****. Number 1 is the most important and number 7 is the least important.*

_____ **salary** (how much money you make)

_____ **hours** (what hours you work)

_____ **safety** (how safe or dangerous the work is)

_____ **workplace** (indoors, outdoors, home, office)

_____ **interest** (how much you like the work)

_____ **education** (how much schooling you need for the job)

_____ **number of job openings** (how easy it is to find a job)

Now work in a small group. Compare your answers. Tell why each item is important or not important to you.

Examples

Salary is important to me because I need to make money for my family.

Workplace isn't important to me because I can work anywhere—indoors, outdoors, at home, or in an office.

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

1 CD 1 *Read and listen to the information on different jobs available for college students.*

Looking for a fun summer job? Need to earn some extra income? Here are some jobs you might like. Call the Career Center at 555-1111 if you want more information about these jobs.

Mountain Climbing Guide	Computer Assembler	Insurance Salesperson
Do you like exciting and sometimes dangerous activities? Do you like to work outdoors? Are you athletic? Then this is the right job for you! If you like doing unusual things, this **offbeat** job is just for you.	Do you like computers? Do you know a lot about them? We need people to work in our **factory** to make computers. You must be fast and like to build things.	Do you like sales? Do you like to work with people? Come work in our insurance company. We sell every kind of **insurance policy**: auto, home, life, and medical.

Cartoon Artist	Restaurant Reviewer	Game Show Contestant
Do you like to draw? Can you draw funny pictures? If you are artistic and **creative**, this is the right job for you.	Do you like to eat in restaurants? Do you have good **taste buds** so you can **taste** many flavors? Do you like different kinds of foods like **spicy food** (Thai or Mexican) and **flavors** (sweet or sour)? If so, this is the job for you!	Do you want to be on TV? We need **contestants** on our game show called *What's My Job?* The **host** asks you questions about jobs. The winner is the person who answers the most questions correctly.

2 *Match the words on the left with the definitions on the right.*

__c__ **1.** offbeat	**a.** thinking of new ways of doing things
____ **2.** factory	**b.** an agreement with an insurance company to be paid money in case of an accident, illness, or death
____ **3.** insurance policy	**c.** different or unusual
____ **4.** creative	**d.** someone who plays a game
____ **5.** taste buds	**e.** a building where things are made
____ **6.** taste	**f.** someone who talks to guests on a radio or TV program
____ **7.** spicy food	**g.** particular taste of a food or drink
____ **8.** flavor	**h.** food with a strong flavor
____ **9.** contestant	**i.** try food by eating a little bit
____ **10.** host	**j.** the parts of the tongue that can taste food

2 FOCUS ON LISTENING

A LISTENING ONE: What's My Job?

1 CD1 *Listen to the beginning of* What's My Job? *Circle the correct answer to complete each statement.*

1. You are listening to a ____.
   a. job interview **b.** game show **c.** radio show
2. Wayne is a ____.
   a. host **b.** contestant **c.** guest

3. Rita is a _____.
   a. host b. contestant c. guest
4. Peter is going to describe _____.
   a. his job b. his company c. himself

2 *Make predictions. Circle more than one answer.*

Peter will talk about . . .

a. what he does.
b. where he works.
c. how much money he makes.
d. what he is like.
e. what he likes to do.

LISTEN FOR MAIN IDEAS

CD 1, 4 *Listen to* What's My Job? *Circle the correct answer to complete each statement.*

1. Rita asks Peter questions to guess _____.
   a. his last name b. his job c. his age
2. Peter works in a _____.
   a. restaurant b. factory c. bakery
3. Peter is _____.
   a. a factory worker b. a chef c. an ice-cream taster
4. Peter has to be careful with _____.
   a. his taste buds b. the ice cream c. the factory machines
5. Peter thinks his job is _____.
   a. tiring b. great c. dangerous

LISTEN FOR DETAILS

CD 1, 5 *Listen to* What's My Job? *again. Then read each statement. Write* **T** *(true) or* **F** *(false).*

_____ 1. Peter can be creative at work.
_____ 2. Peter thinks of new ice-cream flavors.
_____ 3. He eats all the ice cream at work.
_____ 4. He doesn't eat spicy foods.
_____ 5. He doesn't drink alcohol or coffee.
_____ 6. He smokes.
_____ 7. He has a one-million-dollar insurance policy for his taste buds.
_____ 8. He studied ice-cream tasting in school.

Now go back to Section 2A, Exercise 2 above. Were your predictions correct?

MAKE INFERENCES

Listen to three excerpts from What's My Job? *After listening to each excerpt, read the statements. Circle* ***True*** *or* ***False****.*



Excerpt One

1. Wayne thinks ice-cream tasting is a difficult job. True False
2. Peter loves his job. True False



Excerpt Two

1. Wayne doesn't think Peter has to be careful. True False
2. Wayne is surprised that Peter can't smoke or drink alcohol. True False



Excerpt Three

1. Wayne doesn't think Peter went to an ice-cream tasting school. True False
2. Peter learned about ice-cream tasting from his family. True False

Compare your answers with a classmate's. Explain your answers using details from the listening.

EXPRESS OPINIONS

Discuss the questions with the class. Give your opinions.

1. Do you think Peter's job is difficult or easy? Why do you think so?
2. Do you think you could do Peter's job? Why or why not?
3. Do you think it was easy for Peter to get started in his job? Why or why not?

B LISTENING TWO: More Offbeat Jobs

1 *Look at the pictures. Where does each person work? What job is each person doing? Write the name of the job under the picture.*



____



____

2 CD 1 *Listen to two people talking with a job counselor about their jobs. A job counselor is someone who helps people find the right job or career.*

Look at the statements in the chart. Put a check (✓) in the correct column for the window washer or the professional shopper. Some statements may be true for both.

	WINDOW WASHER	PROFESSIONAL SHOPPER
a. I like my job.		
b. I work outdoors.		
c. I earn a high salary.		
d. My work is dangerous.		
e. I like to work with people.		
f. I'm good with money.		
g. I'm good with my hands.		
h. My work is tiring.		
i. It was difficult to get started in this job.		
j. I have my own business.		
k. I want to quit and find a new job.		
l. I don't want to be the boss.		
m. I like working for myself.		

C INTEGRATE LISTENINGS ONE AND TWO

STEP 1: Organize

Read the questions a person might ask about these three unusual jobs. Then answer the questions with the information from Listenings One and Two.

	WINDOW WASHER	PROFESSIONAL SHOPPER	ICE-CREAM TASTER
1. Can you describe what you do?	I wash office building windows.		
2. What do you like about your job?		I love to shop.	
3. What do you dislike about your job?			
4. What's difficult about your job?			
5. What skills do you need to do your job?			

Compare your answers with a partner's. Discuss any differences.

STEP 2: Synthesize

Work with a partner. Student A, you are a host on a radio show. You are interviewing people about their unusual jobs. Student B, you are a guest on the show. You are talking about your offbeat job. Use the questions and the information from Step 1 to guide your conversation.

Example

A: What is your job?
B: I'm a window washer.
A: Can you describe what you do?
B: I wash office building windows. I go high up in a basket to reach the windows.

Switch roles and talk about a different job from Step 1.

3 FOCUS ON SPEAKING

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW

Match the statement on the left with the best response on the right.

__i__ **1.** I want to find a new job. I like my work, but I don't like being in an office. I don't want to be in a building all day.

____ **2.** A friend of mine just got a job as a game-show host. I've never known a game-show host before.

____ **3.** I'm so excited because I just got the job I wanted. Over forty people were trying to get that job! I knew it was the perfect job for me!

____ **4.** I don't think I would like to work in a factory. You have to watch your work very closely so you don't make mistakes or get hurt.

____ **5.** I would like to work as an ice-cream taster, but I'm not sure how to find that kind of work.

____ **6.** I don't like my job. I want to get a new job.

____ **7.** I could not be a window washer. I'm too scared to be high up on a building.

____ **8.** I can't believe how much money basketball players make. I wish I had that much money!

____ **9.** I love making up stories. Someday I want to write my own book.

____ **10.** I want to be a doctor. I know I need to be in school for a long time, but being a doctor is my dream.

____ **11.** I want to be a professional shopper because I don't want to have a boss.

____ **12.** I think walking dogs for a job is fun. The only problem is that all the walking is a lot of work!

a. It sounds like you want to **quit**!

b. Congratulations! It sounds like it's **the right job for you**!

c. It *is* hard to **get started** in that job. Maybe you can ask a job counselor for help?

d. So, you want a **safe** job on the ground.

e. That's an **offbeat** job!

f. They *do* earn **a high salary**!

g. You are very **creative**.

h. I agree. I think it's a **dangerous** job.

~~**i.**~~ You want to work **outdoors** then?

j. I want to **work for myself**, too.

k. If that's really what you want to do, I think it's a **career** you will enjoy.

l. Yes, it is a very **tiring** job.

EXPAND

Work with a partner. Read the sentences below. Circle the best definition for each word or phrase.

1. I work 60 hours a week and I always think about my work. I am a workaholic.

A workaholic is a person who _____.

a. works a lot and finds it difficult not to work **b.** knows a lot of people

2. I want a career where I can work with money. I am very good with numbers.

Someone who is good with numbers _____.

a. likes to count and do math **b.** doesn't like doing math

3. I work hard to be successful. I'm unhappy when I don't complete everything. People sometimes say I try to do too much. They call me an overachiever.

An overachiever _____.

a. is usually not very busy **b.** is very active and does a lot all the time

4. Some people like office jobs. Not me. I enjoy a job that lets me make things. I am good with my hands.

A person who is good with his or her hands _____.

a. likes to do office work all day **b.** is good at fixing or building things

5. I'm good at finding solutions to difficult situations. My friends often ask me to help them. They say I am a good problem solver.

A problem solver _____.

a. is good at finding the best way to do something **b.** needs a lot of help doing things

6. I really enjoy working in a store because I like talking to and helping people. I have good people skills.

Someone with good people skills _____.

a. can relate well with other people **b.** is usually very shy

7. I am good at telling people what I think and I can explain things well. I am very clear when I speak. I am a good communicator.

A good communicator _____.

a. is difficult to understand **b.** is very easy to understand

(continued on next page)

8. I always come to work on time and do my work well. Sometimes I stay longer at work to finish my job. My boss says I'm hardworking.

   A hardworking person _____.

   a. works a lot and is not lazy b. doesn't do a good job

9. My favorite job was working in a restaurant. There were many people working there and we worked well together. We were all team players.

   A team player _____.

   a. works alone and doesn't help others b. works in a group and helps others

10. I worked in a store last year. The boss let me count the money at the end of the day and take it to the bank. My boss didn't worry because I am trustworthy.

   A trustworthy person is _____.

   a. honest b. not honest

CREATE

It is a good idea to practice answering questions before you go to a job interview. Work with a partner. Practice asking and answering the questions. Use the words from the box and vocabulary from Review and Expand in your answers.

Skills: Talents or Abilities	Characteristics: A Description of You as a Person	Strengths and Weaknesses:
good with numbers good with my hands good people skills	creative hardworking trustworthy a team player	good communicator problem solver overachiever workaholic

1. Tell me about yourself. What things do you like to do? Give an example.

   I am ____________________

   I like to ____________________

2. What skills do you have? Give an example of when you used that skill.

   I am ____________________

   I ____________________

3. What are your strengths? Give an example.

I am ______________________________

I ______________________________

4. What are your weaknesses? Give an example.

I am ______________________________

I ______________________________

B GRAMMAR: Descriptive Adjectives

1 *Work with a partner. Read the conversations aloud. Look at the underlined words. Then answer the questions.*

1. **A:** What's your job like?
   B: My job is <u>interesting</u>.

2. **A:** What kind of person are you?
   B: I'm a <u>friendly</u> person.

a. Look at the answers to the questions. What is the verb in each sentence?

b. What is the noun in each sentence?

c. Which words describe the nouns? Where do they come in the sentences?

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES	
Adjectives describe nouns. **1.** Adjectives can come after the verb ***be***.	My job **is *tiring*.**
2. Adjectives can also come before a noun.	Artists are ***creative* people.**
3. When a singular noun follows an adjective, use ***a*** before the adjective if the adjective begins with a consonant sound.	This isn't **a *high-salary* job.**
4. When a singular noun follows an adjective, use ***an*** before the adjective if the adjective begins with a vowel sound.	Peter has **an *unusual* job.**

2 *Work with a partner. Take turns making statements using the nouns and adjectives provided. After one of you makes a statement, the other one reacts, saying, "I agree" or "I don't agree." If you don't agree with a statement, correct it.*

Example

a secretary's work / dangerous

A: A secretary's work is dangerous.
B: I don't agree. A secretary's work isn't dangerous. It's safe.



1. a mountain-climbing guide's job / tiring
2. an ice-cream taster / creative person
3. a basketball player's work / difficult
4. a cartoon artist /offbeat job
5. a window washer / interesting job
6. a game-show host / boring job
7. a professional shopper's job / relaxing

C SPEAKING

PRONUNCIATION: Stress

In words with multiple syllables, one syllable is stressed. Stressed syllables sound longer than unstressed syllables. They are also louder and higher in pitch than unstressed syllables.

CD 1 (10) *Listen to the examples.*

careful

creative

relaxing

A compound noun is formed when two nouns are used together as one noun. In compound nouns, the stress is stronger on the first word in the compound.

CD 1 Track 10 *Listen to the examples.*

animal trainer

salesclerk

When an adjective is followed by a noun, the stress is usually stronger on the noun.

CD 1 Track 10 *Listen to the examples.*

professional shopper

good pay

1 CD 1 Track 11 *Listen to the adjectives. Write the number of syllables you hear in each adjective. Then listen again and underline the stressed syllable. Listen again and repeat the words.*

____ **1.** dangerous

____ **2.** important

____ **3.** tiring

____ **4.** educated

____ **5.** difficult

____ **6.** spicy

____ **7.** unusual

____ **8.** interesting

2 CD 1 Track 12 *Read each item and underline the stressed syllable. Listen and check your answers. Then work with a partner. Take turns saying each item and listening for the correct stress.*

____ **1.** cartoon artist

____ **2.** window washer

____ **3.** high salary

____ **4.** taste buds

____ **5.** ice cream

____ **6.** spicy foods

____ **7.** department store

3 *Work with a partner. Student A, ask Wh- questions with the phrases on the left. Student B, answer with the phrases on the right. Be sure to use the correct stress. Switch roles after item 4. Write your answers on the lines.*

Example

A: What do you call someone who washes windows?
B: A window washer.

b	**1.** someone who washes windows	**a.** taste buds
____	**2.** a frozen dessert	**b.** window washer
____	**3.** someone who sells things	**c.** job counselor
____	**4.** someone who draws cartoons	**d.** cartoon artist
____	**5.** a large store that sells many different products	**e.** ice cream
____	**6.** someone who puts together computers	**f.** department store
____	**7.** the parts of the tongue you use to taste food	**g.** computer assembler
____	**8.** someone who helps people find the right job or career	**h.** salesclerk

FUNCTION: Small Talk

When making conversation, it's polite to ask about a person's job and interests (what people like to do in their free time). It's also polite to express interest (to react positively) when people tell you something about themselves.

ASKING ABOUT SOMEONE'S JOB AND INTERESTS	TALKING ABOUT YOURSELF	SHOWING INTEREST
What do you do?	I'm not working right now. I'm a (student / chef / homemaker). I'm retired.[1]	Oh . . . Really?
How do you like it?	It's great. It's interesting. It's all right, but . . . I don't like it at all.	Good for you. Oh, I see. Oh, why not?
What do you like to do in your free time?	I like to (listen to music / play tennis). I enjoy (reading / playing computer games).	That's interesting. That's nice.

[1] **retired:** no longer working at a job, usually because of age

Work with a partner. Complete the conversation with your own information. Then practice it aloud.

A: Hi. My name's ________________________.

B: Hi. I'm ________________________. Nice to meet you.

A: Nice to meet you, too. So what do you do?

B: I'm ________________________.

A: ________________________. How do you like it?

B: ________________________. How about you? What do you do?

A: ________________________.

B: ________________________. So what do you like to do in your free time?

A: ________________________. How about you?

B: ________________________.

PRODUCTION: Participating in a Workshop

In this activity, you will ***take part in a workshop for people looking for jobs***. In this workshop, people with offbeat jobs want to get different jobs. Job counselors talk with them to identify their skills and think of new jobs. Try to use the vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and language to make small talk that you learned in the unit.*

Follow the steps.

Step 1: Divide into two groups with an equal number of students.
Group A: people with offbeat jobs who want to change jobs
Group B: job counselors, who can help identify skills and new jobs

Group A: Each student chooses one job from the list below or another offbeat job. This is the job you now have. List the skills, characteristics, and strengths a person needs to do that job. Use words like: *creative*, *good with numbers*, and *trustworthy*. Then list reasons why you want to find a new job.

restaurant reviewer	ice-cream taster
cartoon artist	professional shopper
game-show host	other: ____________________
window washer	

*For Alternative Speaking Topics, see page 16.

Group B: Write five questions to ask the job holders.

Examples

What are your responsibilities?

Why do you want to change jobs?

Step 2: Form new groups of eight people—four from Group A and four from Group B. Offbeat job holders (Group A) sit in a line facing the job counselors (Group B).

Conduct a workshop:

- Each job holder briefly introduces himself or herself and then gives a short talk about his or her current job.
- Each counselor asks one or two questions to *each* job holder.

Step 3: To end the workshop, *each* job counselor names a new job that is good for the job holders. Explain which skills the job holders can use in the new jobs.

ALTERNATIVE SPEAKING TOPICS

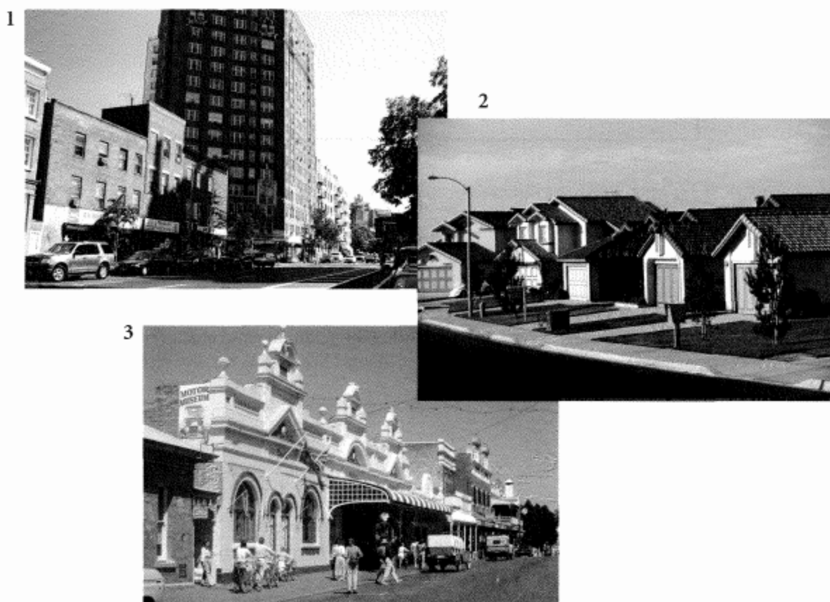
Work in a small group. Discuss the questions.

1. Why do you think some people like offbeat jobs?
2. How do you think people get started in their offbeat jobs in the first place?

RESEARCH TOPICS, see page 188.

UNIT 2

Building a Better Community



1 FOCUS ON THE TOPIC

A PREDICT

Look at the pictures and discuss the questions with the class.

1. Which picture shows a city, a suburb, or a small town? How do you know?
2. Read the title of the unit. What kind of communities do you think the unit will be about?

B SHARE INFORMATION

Work in a small group. Discuss the questions. Use the words in the box to help you.

apartments	friendly	safe
buses and trains	houses	shopping malls
businesses	nature	stores
clean	neighborhoods	tall buildings
crowded	noisy	traffic
dangerous	quiet	trees
freeways	rural	urban (in cities and suburbs)

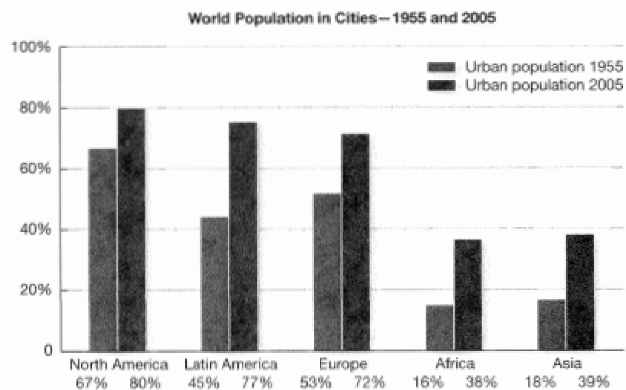
1. How is the city different from the suburbs, small towns, and the country?

   The city is ________________. The city has ________________.

   The suburbs are ________________. The suburbs have ________________.

   Small towns are ________________. Small towns have ________________.

2. Read the graph. How did the world population in cities change between 1955 and 2005? Where was the biggest change? Where was the smallest change?



3. What kind of community do you live in: a city, a suburb, or a small town? What do you like about your community? What don't you like?

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

1 CD 1 *Read and listen to a radio news report.*

HOST: Good afternoon and welcome to *Newsline*. This is Joanne Williams. Tonight we begin our series on communities. First, we'll talk about **(1) urban** communities. About 50 percent of people in the world live in urban areas, in cities and suburbs. In North America about 80 percent of people live in urban areas, mostly in suburbs . . . and, like it or not, **(2) typical** American suburbs are **(3) designed** to be **(4) convenient** for driving. Homes, businesses, and shopping centers are usually far away from each other. So, most people have to drive to get from one place to another, instead of walking or taking **(5) public transportation**. Some people rent apartments or buy **(6) condominiums**, but most people still want the American dream—to own their own home with a backyard, a driveway, and a garage. However, more people are starting to complain that typical suburbs are bad for the **(7) environment** because they are growing and taking away nature and green spaces. And all of those people driving cars can create too much traffic. Others say that people in suburbs are **(8) isolated** from each other, so they don't get to know each other or build a **(9) sense of community**. What do you think? In this evening's program, we're going to talk about a new type of urban design that wants to change all of this. It's called New Urbanism.

2 *Write the number of each boldfaced word from the paragraph next to its definition.*

_5_ **a.** buses and trains that run at regular times and that anyone can use
____ **b.** not connected; separate
____ **c.** caring and friendly feeling that people in a particular area share
____ **d.** useful because it saves time or doesn't cause problems; close or easy to get to
____ **e.** apartments that people own
____ **f.** relating to cities
____ **g.** usual
____ **h.** the air, water, and land where plants, animals, and people live
____ **i.** planned or developed by someone for a reason

2 FOCUS ON LISTENING

A LISTENING ONE: A New-Urbanist Community

CD 1 14 *Listen to the beginning of a radio news report about a new community. Read each question and circle the correct answer.*

1. Where is Roy Martinez?
   a. at the radio station
   b. in a new suburb called Kentville
   c. at Elizabeth Jones's house

2. What do you think Roy will learn about the community? (*Circle more than one answer.*)
   a. where it is
   b. who lives there
   c. what it looks like
   d. how much it costs to live there
   e. how it is different from a typical suburb

LISTEN FOR MAIN IDEAS

CD 1 15 *Read the list of ways that new-urbanist communities are designed to be different from typical suburbs. Listen to the complete radio interview. Check (✓) the things that are true about Kentville.*

New-urbanist communities . . .

____ **1.** are convenient for walking.

____ **2.** are connected to public transportation.

____ **3.** are places where people have a sense of community.

____ **4.** have many parks and trees.

____ **5.** have different kinds of housing near each other.



A new-urbanist community

LISTEN FOR DETAILS

*Listen to the complete radio interview again. Then read each statement. Write **T** (true) or **F** (false).*

_____ **1.** In Kentville, the housing and businesses are far from each other.

_____ **2.** Kentville is not a friendly place.

_____ **3.** People in Kentville want to walk more.

_____ **4.** The sidewalks are wide.

_____ **5.** There are special parking lots for cars.

_____ **6.** The garages are in front of the houses.

_____ **7.** The houses are built close together.

_____ **8.** The houses are close to the street and have front porches.

_____ **9.** Elizabeth Jones thinks people will stay in their houses or in their backyards.

_____ **10.** Elizabeth Jones wanted to build a community where different kinds of people would live together and get to know each other.

Now go back to Section 2A (question 2) on page 20. Were your predictions correct?

MAKE INFERENCES

Listen to three excerpts from the interview. Then decide whether the person would agree or disagree with the statement. Circle your answer.

Excerpt One

1. "There's nothing wrong with people driving a lot."
Would Roy agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

2. "Cars are convenient."
Would Elizabeth agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

Excerpt Two

1. "It's surprising that people want to walk more."
Would Roy agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

2. "People don't like to walk."
Would Elizabeth agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

(continued on next page)



Excerpt Three

1. "Different kinds of people live near each other in typical suburbs." Would Elizabeth agree or disagree?

   a. agree　　　**b.** disagree

2. "Most people want to be around people that are different." Would Roy agree or disagree?

   a. agree　　　**b.** disagree

Compare your answers with a classmate's. Explain your answers using details from the listening.

EXPRESS OPINIONS

Work in a small group. Discuss your opinions using the sentence starters.

1. I would / wouldn't like to live in Kentville because . . .
2. I prefer to live around people who are similar to / different from me because . . .
3. I usually get around my town / city by . . .

B LISTENING TWO: Let's Hear from Our Listeners



In Listening Two, the radio show host is taking calls from the listening audience. The callers are discussing their opinions about Kentville. Listen and circle the best answer to complete each statement.

1. The first caller _____.
   a. doesn't live in Kentville
   b. doesn't like living in Kentville
   c. thinks Kentville is a great place to live
2. The first caller thinks there isn't enough public transportation _____.
   a. in Kentville
   b. between Kentville and other places
   c. in other suburbs
3. The second caller grew up _____.
   a. in a city
   b. in a suburb
   c. in a small town
4. The second caller thinks a sense of community _____.
   a. is not important
   b. is easy to create in Kentville
   c. takes time to build

5. The third caller lives _____.
   a. in a city
   b. in Kentville
   c. in a suburb

6. The third caller thinks Kentville is _____.
   a. crowded
   b. boring
   c. exciting

C INTEGRATE LISTENINGS ONE AND TWO

STEP 1: Organize

Work with a partner. In the chart, write the positive things and negative things about Kentville that each person mentions. If there isn't enough information, leave the space blank.

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Elizabeth Jones	It's convenient for walking.	
Caller One		
Caller Two		
Caller Three		

STEP 2: Synthesize

Work with the same partner. Debate the topic: "Is Kentville a good place to live?" One partner argues that Kentville is a good place to live and the other partner argues that it isn't. Use the information from Step 1 to support your opinion. Then switch partners and roles.

Examples

I think Kentville is a good place to live because it's convenient for walking.

I disagree. I don't think Kentville is a good place to live because …

3 FOCUS ON SPEAKING

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW





Complete the conversation with the words from the box. Then practice reading the conversation aloud with a partner.

boring	environment	sense of community
convenient	exciting	stuck in traffic
crazy about	isolated	
~~crowded~~	public transportation	

A: Hi there! So, how do you like it here in Mumbai?

B: Well, I like it all right, but there are so many people everywhere!

A: Yeah, it sure is ___crowded___ (1.).

B: And the streets are so busy—with cars, buses, motorcycles, bicycles . . . I spend a lot of time ________ (2.) on my way to school.

A: So how do you get to school?

B: I take the bus. It's good that the city has so much ________ (3.). But those buses are so bad for the ________ (4.)!

A: So it sounds like you aren't so ________ (5.) living here.

B: Well, it's not so bad. There's so much to see and do here compared to my hometown. It really is a(n) ______ (6.) place to live. And it's good that my apartment is in a ______ (7.) location. There are markets, shops, restaurants, and even a movie theater near my house.

A: So, do you ever get homesick?

B: Oh sure. I really miss my family and my hometown. It's so beautiful and peaceful there, but it's really far away from everything.

A: So, your hometown is pretty ______ (8.)?

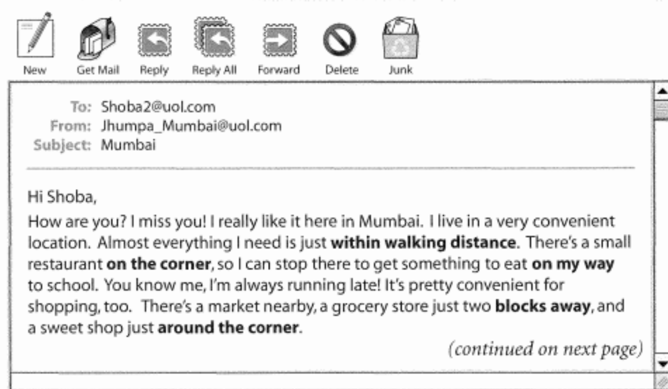
B: Yeah, and there really isn't much to do there. You'd probably think it's ______ (9.). But what I like is that I know everyone and everyone knows me. I really feel connected. There's a real ______ (10.).

A: Do you think you'll ever go back?

B: Well, I'll probably have to stay in the city to find a job. But I hope I can move back someday.

EXPAND

1 *Read the e-mail. Then locate the places described in the e-mail on the map on page 27.*


New Get Mail Reply Reply All Forward Delete Junk

To: Shoba2@uol.com
From: Jhumpa_Mumbai@uol.com
Subject: Mumbai

Hi Shoba,

How are you? I miss you! I really like it here in Mumbai. I live in a very convenient location. Almost everything I need is just **within walking distance**. There's a small restaurant **on the corner**, so I can stop there to get something to eat **on my way** to school. You know me, I'm always running late! It's pretty convenient for shopping, too. There's a market nearby, a grocery store just two **blocks away**, and a sweet shop just **around the corner**.

(continued on next page)

Best of all, there's a small park nearby. On nice days, I like to sit outside and read a book, or watch the people walking by. And there are so many movie theaters here! There's one just **down the street** from my apartment, and I go there every chance I get. The only problem is my college is a little **out of the way** so I usually take a bus to get there. Luckily there's a bus stop **across the street** from my apartment.

I hope you'll come visit me. You're welcome anytime. I'm **on** Main Road **between** Bazaar Road and Das Street. Maybe you can come next weekend!

See you soon,

Jhumpa

2 *Work with a partner. Student A, ask the questions about the places in Jhumpa's neighborhood. Student B, look at the map on page 27 and use the words from the box to complete your answers. Switch roles after item 5.*

across the street	down	on the way
around the corner	next door	out of the way
between	on	within walking distance
blocks away	on the corner	

Student A	**Student B**
1. Where's the clothing store?	It's ________________ of Main Road and Cadel Road.
2. Where's the pharmacy?	It's ________________ from the clinic.
3. You're at Jhumpa's apartment. Where's the movie theater?	It's ________________ the street.
4. You're at the clinic. Where's the bookstore?	It's ________________ from the clinic.
5. You're at the shoe store. Where's the clothing store?	It's ________________.

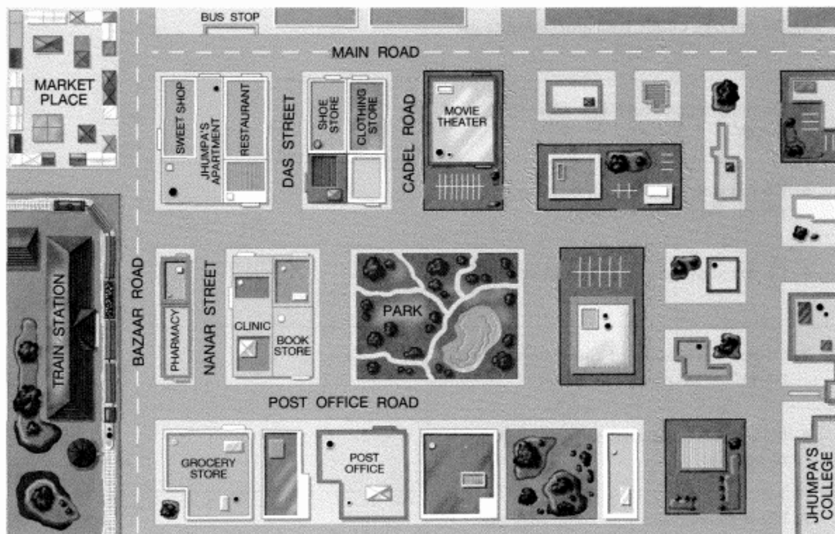
6. You're at the train station. Where's the park? — It's three ______________________.

7. You're at the post office and going to the market. Where's the college? — It's ___________________________.

8. You're at the grocery store and going to Jhumpa's apartment. Where's the sweet shop? — It's _______________ to Jhumpa's apartment.

9. You're at the college. Where's the train station? — It isn't ______________________ _______________.

10. Where's the shoe store? — It's _______________ Main Road. It's _______________ Das Street and Cadel Road.



CREATE

Work with a partner. Interview each other about where you live. Write your partner's answers in the chart. Use the boldfaced words and vocabulary from Review and Expand to answer the questions. When you finish, share your partner's information with the class.

QUESTIONS	PARTNER'S ANSWERS
1. What street do you live **on**?	
2. Do you live in a **convenient** location, or is it **out of the way**?	
3. Do you take **public transportation** to get to school? What type?	
4. Do you ever get **stuck in traffic**? If so, where?	
5. Do you stop anywhere **on the way** to school? Where do you stop?	
6. Do you know your neighbors **next** door?	
7. Do you feel **a sense of community** where you live, or do you feel **isolated**?	
8. Do you think your community is **exciting** or **boring**?	
9. Name something in your community that you aren't **crazy about**.	

B GRAMMAR: *This / That / These / Those* and *One*

1 *Read the sentences. Look at the underlined words. Then answer the questions.*

This city is clean. That one is polluted.

These apartments are in a convenient location. Those are out of the way.

a. Is the word *city* singular or plural? What word comes before it?

b. What word comes after *that*? What does it refer to?

c. Is the word *apartments* singular or plural? What word comes before it?

d. What does the word *those* refer to?

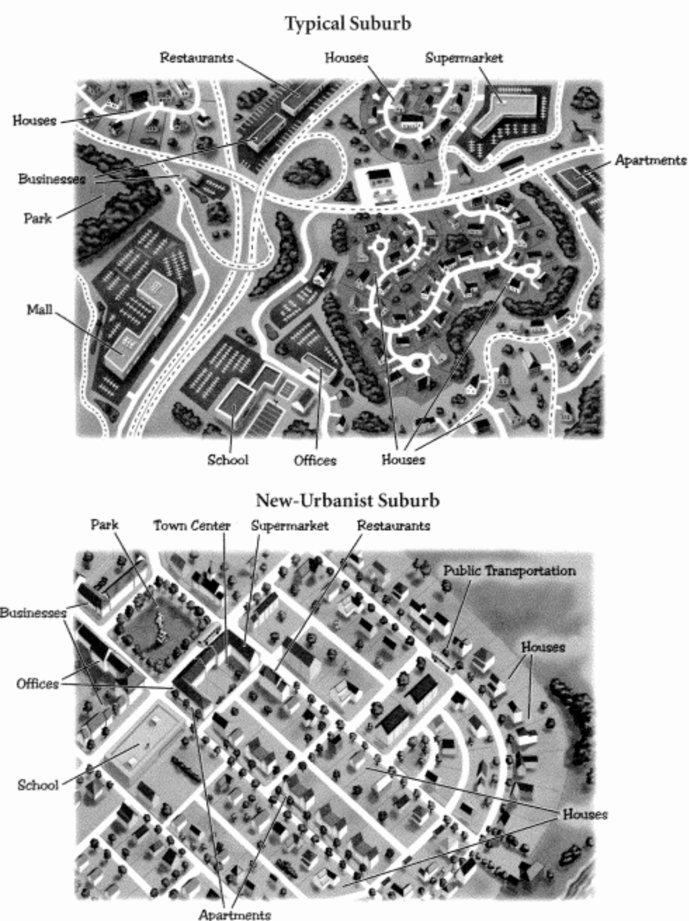
THIS / THAT / THESE / THOSE AND *ONE*	
1. Use ***this***, ***that***, ***these***, and ***those*** to identify persons or things.	Cities are big. **This** city is the biggest.
2. Use ***this*** or ***that*** to talk about a singular noun. ***This*** refers to a person or thing near you. ***That*** refers to a person or thing far from you.	**This** is my house. **That's** my friend's house.
3. Use ***these*** or ***those*** to talk about plural nouns. ***These*** refers to people or things near you. ***Those*** refers to people or things far away.	**These** condominiums are big. **Those** condominiums are small.
4. ***This***, ***that***, ***these***, and ***those*** can be pronouns or adjectives.	**This** is my car. **This** car is blue.
5. Use **one** after ***this*** or ***that***. Do not use ***ones*** after ***these*** or ***those***.	**A:** Do you live in **this** apartment? **B:** No, I don't live in **this one**. I live in **that one**. **A:** Do you shop at **these** stores? **B:** No, I don't shop at **these**. I shop at **those**.

2 *Work with a partner. Look at the maps and take turns comparing the typical suburb and the New-urbanist suburb. Make as many statements as you can about the places on the maps.*

Examples

That school in the typical suburb map is not within walking distance to the houses.

Those houses are very close together.

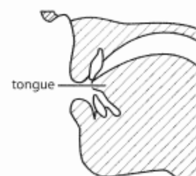


C SPEAKING

PRONUNCIATION: TH Sounds

Look at the picture of how you say the TH sounds in English:

The tip of the tongue is between your teeth. When you say the first sound in *this* (/ð/), your vocal cords vibrate. When you say the first sound in *thing* (/θ/), your vocal cords don't vibrate.



CD 7 (21) *Listen to the boldfaced sounds in this sentence.*

Every**th**ing in **th**is town is wi**th**in walking distance.

1 CD 7 (22) *Listen to the words and phrases and repeat them. Then practice saying the words with a partner.*

1. theater
2. these
3. this evening
4. then
5. path
6. nothing
7. something
8. everything
9. either
10. clothing store

2 CD 7 (23) *Listen to the conversation. Write the words in the blanks. All of the missing words have TH sounds. Check your answers with the class. Then practice the conversation with a partner. Pronounce words with TH carefully.*

1. **A:** How far away is the ________________? Should we drive?
2. **B:** No, ________________'s ________________ walking distance in ________________ town. Mom and Dad don't have to drive anywhere.
3. **A:** ________________'s great. I don't like driving, ________________. But, you know, the houses are really close ________________. How do ________________ feel about ________________?
4. **B:** ________________ like it. You know, ________________'s ________________ wrong ________________ being close to your neighbors.

3 *Work with a partner. People have different opinions about the best place to live. Make short conversations with your partner about the living situations listed in the box. Use the example conversation as a model. Give reasons for your answers. Try to pronounce TH correctly.*

living in a big city	living in a town like Kentville
living in a small town	living in a typical suburb

Example

STUDENT A: What do you think about living in a big city ?

STUDENT B: There's nothing wrong with living in a big city. It's exciting. There are a lot of things to do.

OR

I think there's something wrong with living in a big city. You never get to know your neighbors. Life is too fast.

FUNCTION: Expressing Agreement

EXPRESSING AGREEMENT	
1. In conversation, when we want to agree with an affirmative statement someone has just made, we can use the word ***too*** in our response.	**A:** I live in the suburbs. **B:** I live in the suburbs, **too**. OR I do, **too**. **A:** My house is small. **B:** My house is small, **too**. OR My house is, **too**.
2. When we want to agree with a negative statement someone has just made, we can use ***not . . . either*** in our response.	**A:** I don't like the city. **B:** I **don't** like the city **either**. OR I **don't either**.

1 *Work with a partner. Read the conversations. Circle the correct word to complete each response and write the short form on the line. Then practice reading the conversations aloud. Switch roles with each conversation.*

Example

A: My house doesn't have a front yard.
B: My house doesn't have a front yard too / (either).

My house doesn't either.

1. **A:** I like to use public transportation.

   B: I like to use public transportation too / either.

   ____

2. **A:** I don't live in a condominium.

   B: I don't live in a condominium too / either.

   ____

3. **A:** My neighborhood is crowded.

   B: My neighborhood is crowded too / either.

   ____

4. **A:** I don't live near a market.

   B: I don't live near a market too / either.

   ____

5. **A:** The houses in my neighborhood are old.

   B: The houses in my neighborhood are old too / either.

   ____

2 *Work with a partner. Take turns reading the statements and responding with statements about your town or city.*

Example

A: Dublin isn't very polluted.
B: My city isn't either.
OR
B: My city is very polluted.

1. Most people in Hong Kong live in apartments.
2. Zurich doesn't have a lot of tall buildings.

(continued on next page)

3. Most people in New York City don't have a car.
4. Los Angeles doesn't have a subway system.
5. Most people in Sydney drive to work.
6. Toronto has a lot of parks.

PRODUCTION: Redesigning a Neighborhood

Imagine you are urban designers. ***Your job is to redesign an area in your community***. It could be the neighborhood around your school or another neighborhood you all know. Try to use the vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and language for expressing agreement that you learned in the unit.*

Work in a small group. Follow the steps.

Step 1: Choose a neighborhood in your own community to re-design. Draw a map that shows several blocks of the neighborhood on a piece of paper. Label the streets, housing, schools, businesses, and public transportation stops on the map.

Step 2: Decide what things you want to keep and what you want to change. Each person in the group should suggest something to keep and something to change, and say why.

Example

A: I want to keep this coffee shop next to the school because it's convenient.
B: I do, too. But I think these houses are too isolated. I want to put a train stop on this corner, so these people can take the train to work.

Step 3: Draw a picture of your newly designed neighborhood.

Step 4: Present your original map and your new community map to the class. Show the class the changes you made and explain why you made them.

Listening Activity

After you listen to your classmates, choose the community you like best. Explain why you like that community.

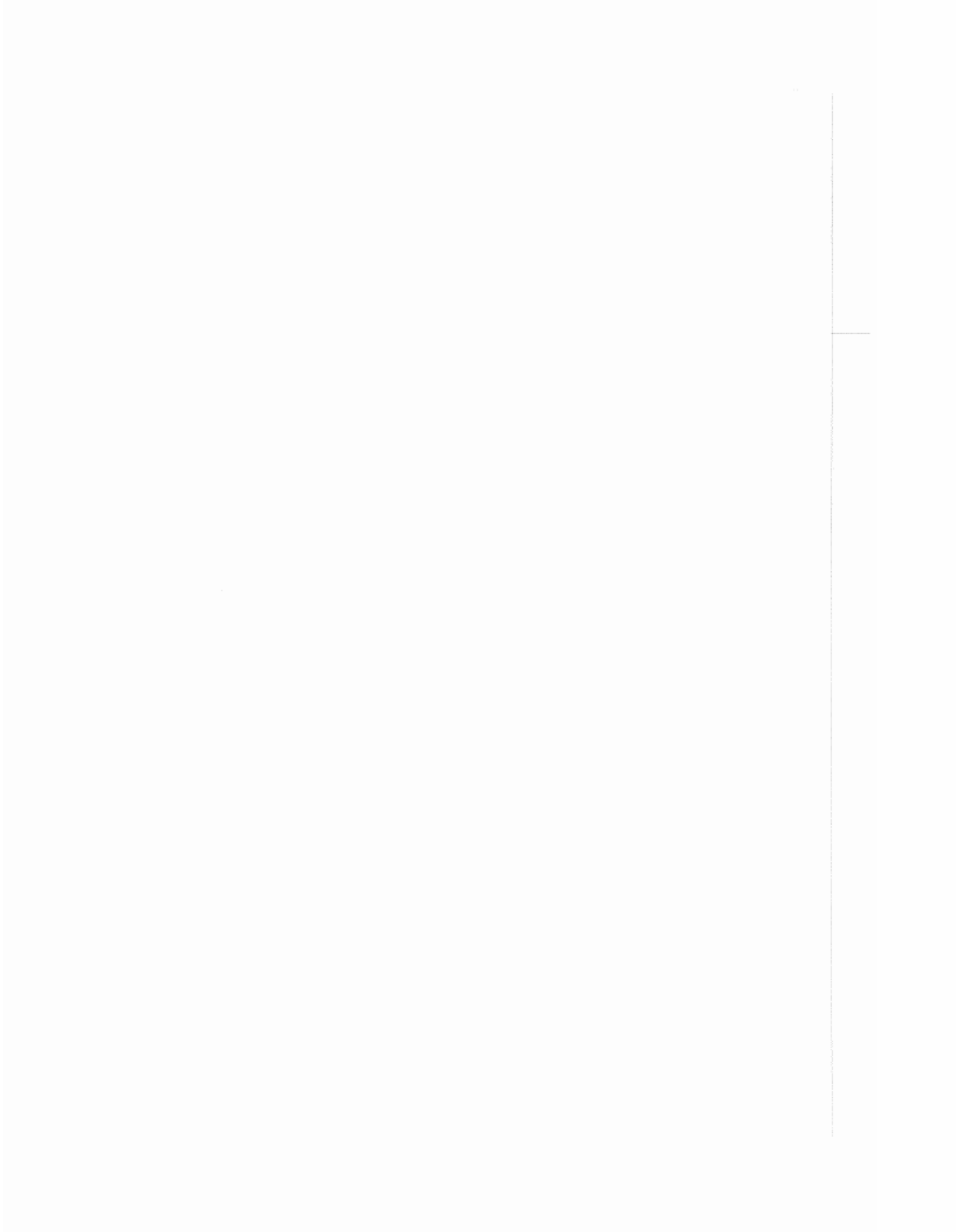
*For Alternative Speaking Topics, see page 35.

ALTERNATIVE SPEAKING TOPICS

Work in a small group. Discuss the questions.

1. As urban areas get bigger and spread out, more land in the country is developed. Do you think that urban designers should try to save nature and green spaces? If so, how should they do it? Or do you think people should continue to develop this land if they want to? Why do you think so?
2. Do you prefer to live close to your neighbors, or do you prefer to have more space? Why?
3. Do you think the government should spend more money on public transportation or more money on roads for cars? Why?

RESEARCH TOPICS, see page 188.



UNIT 3

A Penny Saved Is a Penny Earned



1 FOCUS ON THE TOPIC

A PREDICT

Look at the picture and discuss the questions with the class.

1. What is the man's problem?
2. What do you think he should do?
3. Read the title of the unit. It is a famous American saying. What do you think it means?

B SHARE INFORMATION

1 *How do you usually pay for the things you need? Write* ***often, sometimes,*** *or* ***never.***

______________ **cash**

______________ **checks**

______________ **credit cards** (plastic cards you use to buy things and pay later)

______________ **loans** (money you borrow and pay back later)

2 *Work in a small group. Answer the questions.*

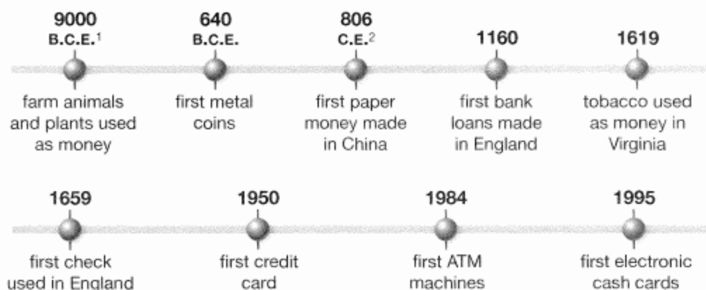
1. In your group, what is the most common way to pay for things? What is the least common way?
2. What do you think is the best way to pay for things when you want to save money? Why do you think so?

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

1 *Read and listen to the timeline and the newspaper article about the history of money and bartering.*

MONEY SERIES

PART ONE: THE HISTORY OF MONEY AND BARTERING



[1] **B.C.E.** = Before the Common Era
[2] **C.E.** = the Common Era

Before people used money, they used other things that were **valuable** to them, such as plants or animals, to pay for things. Over the years, people developed more convenient ways to buy things such as loans, checks, and credit cards. Another convenient type of money is electronic money. Electronic money **represents** real money but can be saved on a computer or on an electronic cash card. Electronic money makes it easy to send money over the Internet. Today, there are many ways to buy things. But it is also easy to **spend** too much money. People can have problems when they spend more than they **earn**. As a result, many people are often looking for ways to save money.





One way for people to save money is bartering. Bartering means **trading** one thing for another without using money. For example, one person might **exchange** some food for some clothing or other item with **equal** value.

Before people used money, they bartered for the things they needed. Today, people, businesses, and governments still barter as a way to save money. For example, a business might barter for goods, such as machines, or **services** that another business can do for them. Some people use the Internet to find other people interested in bartering. Other people use community barter **networks**. A barter network is a group of people that trade with each other. A barter network **provides** its **members** with the chance to save money and get to know other people in their community.

2 *Choose the best definition for each word. Circle your answers.*

1. **valuable**	**(a.)** useful, important	**b.** living
2. **represents**	**a.** pays for something	**b.** is a sign for something
3. **spend**	**a.** pay money	**b.** get money
4. **earn**	**a.** get money by working	**b.** pay money
5. **trading**	**a.** giving one thing for another	**b.** not spending money
6. **exchange**	**a.** buy a new thing	**b.** give one thing for another
7. **equal**	**a.** different	**b.** the same
8. **service**	**a.** something you do for someone	**b.** a thing you buy someone
9. **network**	**a.** group of people with the same interests	**b.** people in a community
10. **provides**	**a.** gives	**b.** gets
11. **member**	**a.** person who belongs to a group	**b.** person who barters

2 FOCUS ON LISTENING

A LISTENING ONE: A Barter Network

1 *Listen to the beginning of* A Bartner Network. *Then read each question and circle the correct answer.*

1. What are you listening to?
a. a radio announcement
b. a meeting
c. a class

2. Who is listening while Carol speaks?
a. members of the barter network
b. people who work for the barter network
c. people who are interested in joining the network

2 *Make predictions. Circle more than one answer.*

1. Carol is going to discuss . . .
a. what bartering is.
b. why people like to barter.
c. how to use the barter network.
d. how to join the network.

2. Carol is going to give this information:
a. examples of things people barter
b. how old the barter network is
c. how many members belong to the network
d. names of other members
e. how to find other members
f. an example of a barter exchange

LISTEN FOR MAIN IDEAS

Listen to the whole discussion about the City Barter Network. Put a check (✓) next to the things that members do.

Members . . .

____ barter for things and services.

____ only barter for services.

____ need to provide a service before they can get one.

____ earn money.

____ earn Time Dollars.

____ use Time Dollars to buy services.

____ spend money.

LISTEN FOR DETAILS

*Listen to the barter network meeting again. Then read each statement. Write **T** (true) or **F** (false).*

____ **1.** Members can list their services on a website.

____ **2.** Most members provide services like cooking, cleaning, or fixing things.

____ **3.** Members don't provide unusual services like taking photographs or giving music lessons.

____ **4.** Some services are more valuable than others.

____ **5.** Carol spent two hours cleaning another member's house.

____ **6.** A member spent one hour fixing Carol's computer.

____ **7.** The man doesn't think he has skills.

____ **8.** Carol needs someone to walk her dog.

Now go back to Section 2A, Exercise 2 on page 40. Were your predictions correct?

MAKE INFERENCES

Listen to three excerpts from the barter network meeting. After listening to each excerpt, read the questions and circle the correct answers.



Excerpt One

1. How does the man feel about exchanging services?

a. He feels excited.
b. He doesn't feel excited.

2. How do you know?

a. His voice is flat.
b. His voice rises and falls.



Excerpt Two

1. How does the woman feel about getting piano lessons?

a. She feels excited.
b. She doesn't feel excited.

2. How do you know?

a. Her voice is flat.
b. Her voice rises and falls.

(continued on next page)


Excerpt Three

1. How does the man feel about the woman's question?
   - **a.** He's surprised.
   - **b.** He isn't surprised.
2. How do you know?
   - **a.** His voice is flat.
   - **b.** His voice rises.

EXPRESS OPINIONS

Read the statements and circle agree or disagree. Then discuss your answers with the class.

1. I'd like to join a barter network.	agree	disagree
2. Bartering is a good way for me to save money.	agree	disagree
3. I like to save money by buying used things.	agree	disagree
4. Buying new things helps me feel good.	agree	disagree

B LISTENING TWO: The Compact


Listen to the conversation between two members of the City Barter Network. Circle the best answer to complete each statement.


Used items in a thrift store

1. The Compact is a group of people who promised _____.
   - **a.** to barter for a year
   - **b.** not to buy anything new for a year
2. Members of the Compact can buy new _____.
   - **a.** food, medicine, and necessities
   - **b.** food, cars, and necessities
3. The members of the Compact think _____.
   - **a.** clothes, cars, and electronics are too expensive
   - **b.** most people have too much stuff they don't need

4. Members of the Compact _____ to get what they need.
   a. borrow, buy things used, or barter
   b. buy used things and barter for food
5. Mark needed to buy _____.
   a. new paint
   b. a new house
6. There are _____ of members in the Compact.
   a. hundreds
   b. thousands
7. Natalie likes shopping for _____.
   a. used clothes
   b. new clothes

C INTEGRATE LISTENINGS ONE AND TWO

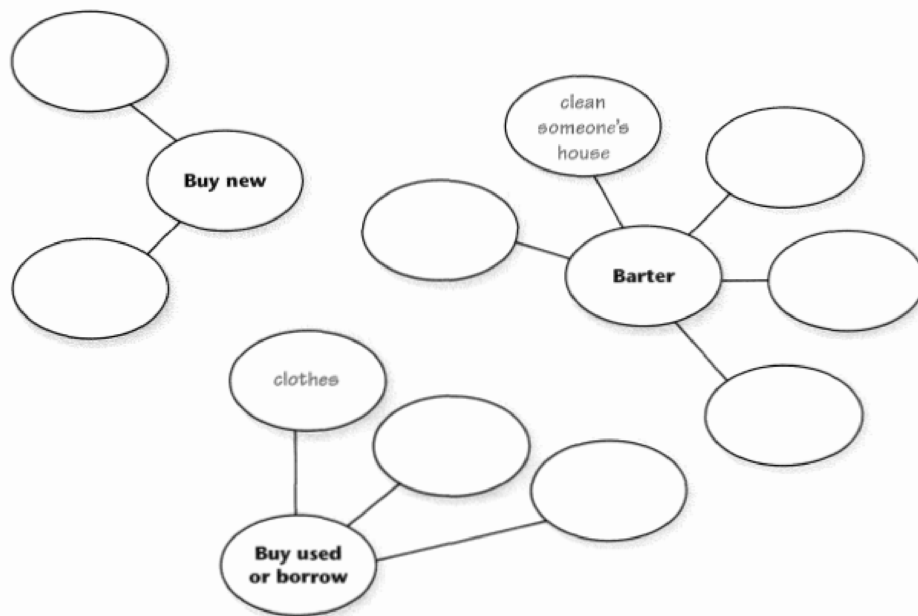
STEP 1: Organize

1 *Look at the list of goods (things you can buy) and services (things you pay people to do for you) mentioned in the listenings. Write each item in the correct column in the chart.*

car	fix a television	medicine
~~clean someone's house~~	food	paint someone's house
clothes	give someone piano lessons	walk someone's dog
computer		

GOODS	SERVICES
	clean someone's house

2 *How can members of the Compact get the goods and services they need? Write each good and service from the chart in the correct place on the graphic organizer. Then compare your answers with a classmate's.*



STEP 2: Synthesize

Work with a partner. Imagine you are in the City Barter Network and the Compact. Student A, say what you need. Student B, suggest a way to get each thing. Use the information from Step 1.

Example

A: I want someone to clean my house.
B: You can get that by bartering.

3 FOCUS ON SPEAKING

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW

Complete the conversations with words from the box. Use the underlined words to help you. Then work with a partner. Practice reading the conversations aloud. Switch roles after item 4.

borrow	exchange	services	stuff	valuable
equal	necessity	spend	~~used~~	

1. **A:** I bought a chair at a thrift store yesterday. <u>It isn't new</u>, but it's very nice.
   B: Do you really like to buy ___used___ things?
2. **A:** This sweater is too big. I need to take it back to the store and <u>trade it</u> for a smaller one.
   B: Does that store let you ________________ things?
3. **A:** Do you want to go shopping? I need to get some <u>things</u> for my apartment.
   B: No, thanks. I already have too much ________________.
4. **A:** I wish I knew how to do something <u>useful</u>, like fixing cars.
   B: Yeah, you're right. Fixing cars is a ________________ skill.
5. **A:** I <u>need</u> to buy a new television.
   B: Really? Is a television really a ________________?
6. **A:** I don't want to <u>pay</u> a lot of money for a television.
   B: How much do you want to ________________?
7. **A:** That department store <u>does so many things</u> for you. They even have personal shoppers, people who help you choose what to buy.
   B: Yeah, they do offer a lot of ________________.
8. **A:** Do you think these two cameras are <u>the same</u>?
   B: Yeah, I think they are pretty ________________.
9. **A:** My car broke down. Can I <u>use yours</u> to get to school today?
   B: Sure, you can ________________ it anytime.

EXPAND

1 *Read the newsletter article about flea markets.*



The Barter Network Newsletter

By Carol Meyer

This Week's Money-Saving Tip: Flea Markets

Are you looking for another way to save money? If so, you should try shopping at flea markets. Flea markets are a great place to find lots of interesting used items without **paying an arm and a leg**. There are wonderful flea markets all over the world, including Maxwell's Street Market in Chicago, the Grand Bazaar in Istanbul, La Merced in Mexico City, or the Marche aux Puces in Paris.

Did you know that our city has a flea market too? It meets every Saturday in the parking lot of South High School. People come to buy and sell all kinds of things: furniture, clothes, artwork, electronics, and more. Some of the items are expensive. For example, you may not be able **to afford** some of the antiques. But most of the items are really cheap. You can really find some great **bargains**. The best way to save money is **to bargain** with the sellers. That's how I **got a good deal** on a jacket last Saturday. At first, the seller asked $100 for it, but I bargained with him until he agreed to take only $50. My friend got an even better deal. She bought a painting that only **cost** $10. Later, she found out that the painting is **worth** $300! So, if you are looking for a fun new way to save money, you should head to the flea market. It's really **worth it**.

2 *Match the words and phrases on the left with the definitions on the right.*

____ **1.** to pay an arm and a leg
____ **2.** to afford
____ **3.** a bargain
____ **4.** to bargain
____ **5.** to get a good deal
____ **6.** to cost
____ **7.** to be worth
____ **8.** to be worth it

a. to have a particular value
b. to have a particular price
c. to have enough money to pay for something
d. to get a good price on something
e. to spend a lot of money
f. to discuss the price of something you are buying
g. to be good to do even though you made an effort
h. something you buy for less than the usual price

CREATE

Work in a small group. Take turns asking and answering the questions. Use the boldfaced words and vocabulary from Review and Expand in your answers.

1. Do you like **to bargain** with sellers when you shop? Do you bargain when you buy from street vendors? Why or why not?
2. Do you like to buy things **used**? Why or why not? If yes, what are some things that you like to buy used? What are some things you never buy used?
3. Name a store or place to shop that you think has good **bargains**. What kinds of bargains can you get there?
4. Name something you bought that you **got a good deal** on. Where did you get it? Why do you think it was a good deal?
5. Do you have a lot of **stuff** in your house? What do you usually do with stuff that you don't use anymore—do you prefer to keep it, throw it away, or give it to someone else?
6. Name something you own that was **cheap** to buy. How much did it cost? Name something that you **paid an arm and a leg** for.
7. Do you own something that is **worth** more now than when you bought it? How much did you **spend** on it? What is it worth now?

B GRAMMAR: Comparative Adjectives

1 *Read the sentences. Look at the underlined words. Then answer the questions.*

I need to find a <u>cheaper</u> place to shop.

The department store is <u>bigger</u> than the thrift store.

a. What is the adjective in the first sentence? What does it describe? What two letters does the adjective end with?

b. What is the adjective in the second sentence? What does it describe? What word comes after *bigger*?

COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVES	
1. Use the comparative form of the adjective to compare two people, places, or things. Use ***than*** before the second person, place, or thing.	This car is **cheaper *than*** that one.
2. Add **–er** to form the comparative of short (one-syllable) adjectives. Add **–r** if the adjective ends in **e**.	cheap cheap**er** old old**er** close close**r**
3. When a one-syllable adjective ends in a consonant + vowel + consonant, double the last consonant and add **–er**.	big big**ger** hot hot**ter**
4. When two-syllable adjectives end in **–y**, change the **y** to ***i*** and add **–er**.	easy eas**ier** funny funn**ier**
5. Some adjectives have irregular comparative forms.	good **better** bad **worse**
6. To form the comparative of most adjectives of two or more syllables, add ***more*** before the adjective. ***Less*** is the opposite of ***more***.	No service is ***more* valuable** than another one. Used clothing is ***less* expensive** than new clothing.

2 *Work with a partner. Look at the ads for the cars. Take turns making sentences comparing the two cars. Use the adjectives from the box. Then say which car you would like to buy and why.*

bad for the environment	easy to park	nice
big	expensive	old
cheap to drive	good for a big family	safe
comfortable		

Example

A: The Indulge is bigger than the Pee Wee.
B: The Indulge is more expensive than the Pee Wee.

Introducing the new
INDULGE

Buy a new
Indulge
and drive in comfort,
style, and safety for only $50,000!

This week's special: a used
Pee Wee

This Pee Wee
is almost new, and it
runs great! It gets excellent
gas mileage, and it's on sale now for only $4,000!

3 *Work with a partner. Write eight sentences comparing the Indulge and the Pee Wee. Read them aloud to the class.*

C SPEAKING

PRONUNCIATION: Numbers and Prices

When we say the numbers 13 through 19, *-teen* is stressed and the letter ***t*** in *-teen* sounds like /t/. When we say the numbers 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, and 90, the first syllable is stressed and the letter ***t*** in *-ty* sounds like a "fast" /d/.

Listen to the examples.

13	16	19
/thirtéen/	/sixtéen/	/ninetéen/
30	60	90
/thírdy/	/síxdy/	/nínedy/

There are two ways to say prices.

Listen to the examples.

$4.29 four dollars and twenty-nine cents

four twenty-nine

$53.99 fifty-three dollars and ninety-nine cents

fifty-three ninety-nine

1 *Listen to the numbers. Circle the number you hear.*

1. 13 30

2. 14 40

3. 15 50

4. 16 60

5. 17 70

6. 18 80

7. 19 90

2 *Work with a partner. Look at the numbers in Exercise 1. Take turns. Say a number. Remember to stress the correct syllable. Your partner points to the number you say.*

3 *Listen and write the prices you hear. Then practice saying them aloud in two different ways.*

1. $ ________________

2. $ ________________

3. $ ________________

4. $ ________________

5. $ ________________

4 *Work with a partner. Take turns asking each other how much you usually spend on the items listed. Write your partner's answers. Share the information with your classmates.*

Example

A: How much do you usually spend on a haircut?
B: I spend thirty dollars. How about you?
A: I spend fifteen dollars.

1. a haircut $ ________________

2. a movie ticket $ ________________

3. your phone bill $ ________________

4. a meal in a restaurant $ ________________

FUNCTION: Negotiating—Making Suggestions and Coming to an Agreement

When two or more people need to make a decision together, they need to negotiate; they need to come to an agreement. When negotiating, you need to make suggestions until each person agrees.

MAKING SUGGESTIONS	AGREEING WITH SUGGESTIONS	DISAGREEING WITH SUGGESTIONS
Let's buy this chair.	OK. / All right.	Well, I don't know. How about . . . ?
Why don't we go to the thrift store?	That's fine with me.	I have another idea. Why don't we . . . ?
How about buying a used car instead of a new one?	That's a good idea.	I don't think so.
Would you like to sell your computer?	Let's do it.	
	It's a deal.	
	OK. Why not?	

1 *Look at the list of things. Pretend you have $2,500 to buy things for your new house or apartment. Make a list of the things you would like to get.*

used couch—$100
new couch—$650
large armchair—$300
large floor rug—$200
lamp—$25
bookcase—$115
painting—$175
video-game player—$200
plants—$50
pet kitten—$75
pet dog—$130
computer—$800
CD player—$250
used piano—$300
small used television—$85
large new television—$700

Your List

_______________ _______________ _______________

_______________ _______________ _______________

2 *Now work in a small group. Take turns suggesting things to buy. When everyone agrees, write your group's list below.*

Example

A: Let's buy the used couch for $100.
B: Well, I don't know. I don't want a used couch. How about buying the new one?
C: But it costs a lot. Why don't we buy the chair?

Your Group's List

______________ ______________ ______________

______________ ______________ ______________

3 *Share your group's list with another group. Explain why your group chose each thing. The other group listens and answers. Did you choose the same things? Why or why not?*

PRODUCTION: Bartering

In this activity, you will ***practice bartering for goods and services with your classmates***. Try to use the vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and language for negotiating that you learned in the unit.*

Follow the steps.

Step 1: Get five blank cards. On four of the cards write the following:

a. name of an item you would like to exchange (and a drawing, if you'd like)

b. how old it is

c. how much money you think it is worth now.

Do this for four items. On the fifth card, write a service you can provide, such as cook dinner.

Step 2: Go around the class and barter with your classmates. Compare your items and services and negotiate with each other until you come to an agreement. When you come to an agreement, trade your cards.



*For Alternative Speaking Topics, see page 53.

Example

A: How about trading your television for my computer?
B: But my television is newer than your computer.
A: Yeah, but my computer is more valuable.
B: Thanks, but that's not worth it. I want to keep looking.
OR
B: OK. It's a deal.

Step 3: Report your exchanges to the class.

Example

A: I traded a two-year-old television worth $300 for a three-year-old computer worth $350.
B: That's a pretty good deal.
C: Well, I paid an arm and a leg for a TV.

Listening Activity

Listen to your classmates' reports. Who made the most exchanges? Who got the best deal?

ALTERNATIVE SPEAKING TOPICS

Work in a small group. Discuss the questions.

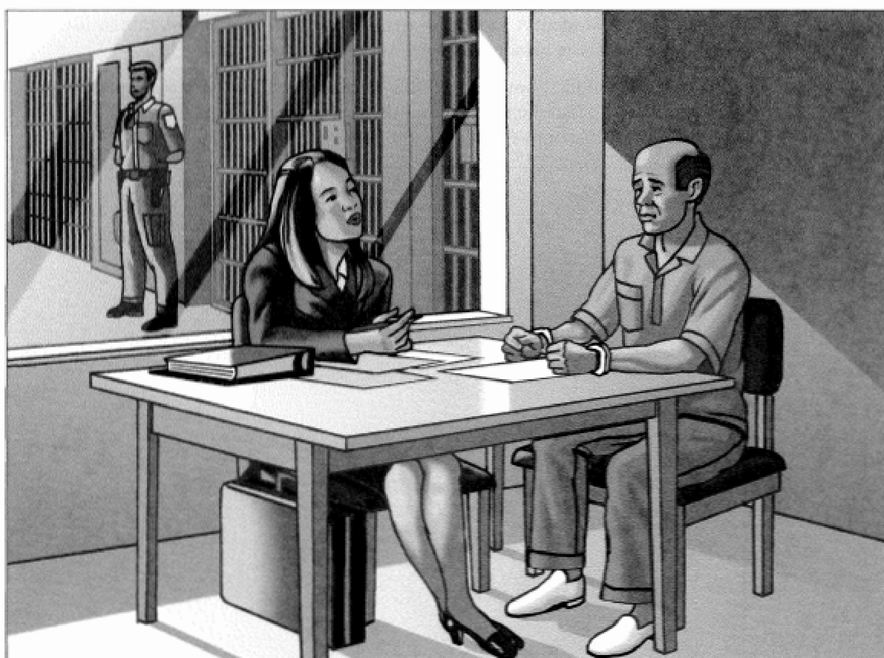
1. Do you think that most people have too much stuff? Why or why not? Give examples.
2. Do you think the Compact is a good idea or a bad idea? Why? Could you keep a promise not to buy anything new for a year? Explain.

RESEARCH TOPICS, **see page 189.**



UNIT 4

Innocent or Guilty?



1 FOCUS ON THE TOPIC

A PREDICT

Look at the picture and discuss the questions with the class.

1. Where are the people?
2. Why do you think the man is there?
3. What do you think the man and woman are talking about?

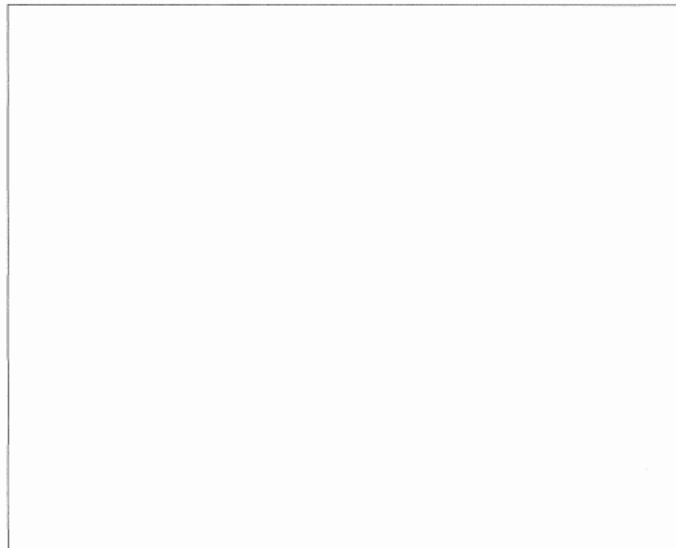
B SHARE INFORMATION

1 *Police get a lot of information about criminals from people on the street who saw what happened. However, often these people do not remember the details. How well can you remember details? Work with a partner. Complete the activity.*

Student A, look at the photograph of the person on page 181. Study it for two minutes and close your book. Then describe what you saw to Student B. Use as many details as possible.

Student B, after Student A finishes describing the photo, draw a picture or use words to describe the person. Use the box below. Switch roles.

Student B, look at the photograph of the person on page 182 for two minutes and close your book. Describe the photograph to Student A. Use as many details as possible. Student A, draw or describe the picture.



2 *Look at the two photographs on pages 181 and 182. Answer the questions.*

1. Do the drawings or descriptions match the photos? How are they different?
2. Do you think it is easy to remember and describe what you saw? Why or why not?

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

1 *Police have new ways to get information about criminals. Read and listen to a conversation between two friends about DNA testing.*

A: Listen to this: "Since 1989, more than 200 people have been let out of **prison** in the United States."

B: Why were they let out?

A: Because they weren't **guilty**. They were in prison for **crimes** they didn't **commit**. They didn't do anything wrong!

B: Really? How did they get out?

A: **DNA** testing.

B: What's that?

A: DNA is information that makes each person different from every other person. It's what decides the color of your eyes, hair, and skin.

B: So, it's what makes me different from you.

A: Yes. And the police can use DNA to find the person who committed a crime.

B: How does that work?

A: Well, we leave DNA everywhere we go; it's in our hair or left when we touch something. When there is a crime, the police can collect **evidence**; something that might help them find who committed the crime. For example, evidence can be a hair or something the person touched, like a can of soda or even the **victim** of the crime. The police test the DNA. Then they use a computer to see if the police found the same DNA at another crime scene. If so, they know who committed the crime and they can **arrest** that person.

B: But how does it help people get out of prison?

A: Now DNA can be used to show people are **innocent**. This happens when the DNA the police get is different than the DNA of the person in prison.

B: So people just leave prison?

A: No, it's not that easy. There's an organization called the Innocence Project that helps people who are in prison **prove** they are innocent. And they have helped more than 200 people in the United States, Canada, England, and Australia.

B: That's great. And this is new?

A: Yes. Before, the police used information from **eyewitnesses**—the people who saw the crime. But eyewitnesses can be wrong. With DNA, the police can prove who committed the crime.

B: That's interesting!

2 *Match the words on the left with the definitions on the right.*

__e__ **1.** prison		**a.** do something bad
____ **2.** guilty		**b.** information in the human body that makes each person different from others
____ **3.** crimes		**c.** a person who saw something happen
____ **4.** commit		**d.** responsible for a crime
____ **5.** DNA		**e.** a place where people who committed a crime stay
____ **6.** evidence		**f.** not guilty
____ **7.** victim		**g.** to take a person to a police station
____ **8.** arrest		**h.** to show something is true
____ **9.** innocent		**i.** a person who is hurt by someone
____ **10.** prove		**j.** information that shows that something is true
____ **11.** eyewitness		**k.** activities that are against the law

2 FOCUS ON LISTENING

A LISTENING ONE: Roger's Story

CD 1 *You will listen to a story about Roger—a man who went to prison. It is based on true stories. Listen to the beginning of Roger's story. What do you think he will talk about? Check (✓) everything he might say.*

____ the reason he was sent to prison

____ why the police thought he was guilty

____ what he did in prison

____ people he met in prison

____ how he got out of prison

____ where the prison was located

LISTEN FOR MAIN IDEAS

CD 7 (37) *Listen to Roger's whole story. Then read each statement. Write* **T** *(true) or* **F** *(false). Correct the false statements.*

____ **1.** Roger spent 25 years in prison.

____ **2.** He was guilty.

____ **3.** He heard about DNA testing before going to prison.

____ **4.** The Innocence Project helped Roger.

LISTEN FOR DETAILS

CD 7 (38) *Listen to Roger's story again. Fill in the missing information.*

1. Roger was living in Chicago in ________________.

2. The police showed the victim ________________ pictures.

3. In May ________________, there was a trial and Roger was found guilty and convicted.

4. The police ________________ believe Roger's wife and family.

5. The police ________________ the DNA evidence from Roger's case; they could not test it.

6. In ________________, Roger heard about the Innocence Project.

7. The Innocence Project worked with the police to ________________ the DNA evidence.

8. In ________________, Roger walked out of prison. He was a free man.

MAKE INFERENCES

Listen to three excerpts from Roger's story. Then decide whether the person would agree or disagree with the statement. Circle your answer.

CD 7 (39) **Excerpt One**

"The families will always try to protect each other, so they will often lie."

Would the police agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

CD 7 (40) **Excerpt Two**

"The police did the best they could—they wanted to help prove I was innocent."

Would Roger agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

(continued on next page)


Excerpt Three

"I'm not angry at anyone. I understand why they sent me to prison."

Would Roger agree or disagree?

a. agree **b.** disagree

Compare your answers with a classmate's. Explain your answers using details from the listening.

EXPRESS OPINIONS

*Work with a partner. Read the quotes from people who have just listened to Roger's story. Do you agree or disagree? Write **A** (agree) or **D** (disagree). Discuss your opinions.*

1. "I think what happened to Roger is terrible. I hope the government gives him a lot of money and helps him get a job and a place to live." ____
2. "It's too bad what happened to him. I feel that he should just be happy that he is out of prison and go on with his life." ____
3. "In my opinion, it's a good thing there are organizations like the Innocence Project. I don't know who else could help Roger." ____
4. "I can't believe that the police didn't believe his family. That really surprises me." ____

B LISTENING TWO: Why Do Innocent People Go to Prison?


Listen to an interview with an Innocence Project lawyer. She explains why innocent people sometimes go to prison. Then answer the questions. You don't need to write complete sentences.

1. What does Laura Chang do?
   She is a lawyer for the innocent Project
2. What is mistaken identity?
   when the eyewitness thinks he saw someone but is mistaken
3. Why does mistaken identity happen? Write one or more reasons.
   Sometimes eyewitness don't remember
4. What is false confession?
   ____
5. Why would someone give a false confession? Write one or more reasons.
   ____

6. What is police misconduct?

____

7. What is an example of police misconduct?

____

8. What is an example of a lawyer doing a bad job?

____

C INTEGRATE LISTENINGS ONE AND TWO

STEP 1: Organize

Complete the chart. In the left column, write reasons why innocent people go to prison. In the right column, write examples for each reason from Listenings One and Two.

REASONS WHY INNOCENT PEOPLE GO TO PRISON	EXAMPLES FROM LISTENINGS 1 AND 2
1. mistaken identity	eyewitness was wrong about Roger
2.	
3.	
4.	

STEP 2: Synthesize

Work with a partner. Student A, give a reason why innocent people go to prison. Student B, give an example from Listening One or Two. Use the information from Step 1. Then switch roles. Continue until you have talked about all the reasons.

Example

A: One reason innocent people go to prison is mistaken identity.
B: Roger's case is an example of that. The victim was wrong about Roger.

3 FOCUS ON SPEAKING

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW

Use the words from the box to complete the sentences.

arrested	false confession	police misconduct
DNA	guilty	prison
evidence	innocent	prove
~~eyewitness~~	mistaken identity	victim

1. A person who sees a crime is a(n) ___eyewitness___.
2. Jerry was home when the police came to his house. They ___arrested___ him and took him to the police station.
3. A person can be wrong about what he or she saw. This is called ___mistaken identity___.
4. Lawyers use ___Evidence___ to try to show a person committed a crime.
5. ___DNA___ is information in a person's body that makes him or her different from everyone else; it determines things like the color of your eyes and hair.
6. A person who did not commit a crime is ___Innocent___.
7. A person who has committed a crime will be sent to ___Prison___.
8. Sometimes a person will say they committed a crime even if they did not. They might feel scared or pressured to give a ___false confession___.
9. Sometimes the police will do things wrong, such as destroy evidence. This is one example of ___Police misconduct___.
10. Someone stole my sister's car last night. This is the first time anyone in my family has been the ___victim___ of a crime.
11. Lawyers have a hard job; they must ___prove___ if someone did something wrong or not.
12. A person who committed a crime is ___guilty___.

EXPAND

1 *Read the frequently asked questions (FAQs) about global DNA databases.*

http://interpolglobal.com/dna/database/faq

FAQs on Interpol's Global DNA Database

POLICE LINE DO NOT CROSS

What is Interpol?
Interpol (The International Criminal Police Organization) is the world's largest police organization. It has 186 countries.

What is a global DNA database?
A DNA database is a collection of 64,000 DNA samples taken from people in 42 countries. It is kept in a computer. Police can use the database to find **criminals** in any country.

Why should there be a global DNA database?
A global DNA database can help the police **solve a crime** in any country. It can help the police to quickly match the DNA they found at a **crime scene** with the DNA in the database. DNA can also help people **prove their innocence**.

Who should give a DNA sample?
One way is to ask everyone to give a DNA sample. Another idea is to take DNA when the police arrest someone. The third way is to take DNA only from people who are **found guilty** and sent to prison.

2 *Read each statement. Then circle the correct definition of the underlined word.*

1. The police arrived at the crime scene and found the victim. She was sitting on the ground and very scared.
   a. the place something bad happened **b.** the police station
2. The global DNA database can help the police find criminals in any country.
   a. people who commit crimes **b.** people who didn't do anything wrong
3. The eyewitness told the lawyers what she saw. The lawyers used her information and other evidence in court. The man who committed the crime was found guilty.
   a. someone decided the person committed the crime **b.** someone decided the person did not commit the crime

(continued on next page)

4. DNA evidence can help people <u>prove their innocence</u>.
   a. show they didn't commit the crime   b. commit crimes
5. The police can use DNA evidence and eyewitnesses' stories to <u>solve crimes</u>.
   a. understand crimes   b. find the people who committed the crimes

CREATE

Work with a partner. Student A, you were arrested, found guilty, and put in prison, but you are innocent. Student B, interview Student A. Find out what happened. Then switch roles. Use the questions on this page and vocabulary from Review and Expand.



Example

B: When did the police arrest you?
A: They arrested me last year.
B: Were there any eyewitnesses?
A: There was an eyewitness but I think she made a mistake. It was too dark. She couldn't see well but the police believed her anyway.

Questions

When did the police arrest you?

Where was the crime scene?

Was there evidence or an eyewitness?

Why do you think they found you guilty?

Can you prove your innocence? How?

B GRAMMAR: The Simple Past: *Yes / No* and *Wh-* Questions

1 *Read the questions and answers.*

Did the people at the Innocence Project help Roger?	Yes, they did.
Did Roger stay in prison?	No, he didn't.
Was Roger innocent?	Yes, he was.
Were the police helpful?	No, they weren't.
When did Roger get out of prison?	He got out two years ago.
Where did he go?	He went home.
Who helped Roger?	The Innocence Project helped him.

2 *Answer the questions.*

a. What is the verb in each question or answer?

b. What form is the main verb in each question or answer?

c. What form are the other verbs?

THE SIMPLE PAST: *YES / NO* AND *WH-* QUESTIONS		
1. *Yes / No* questions in the simple past have the same form (***Did* + subject + base form**) for regular and irregular verbs.	**Did** you **commit** a crime? [regular verb] **Did** she **write** to the [irregular verb] Innocence Project?	No, I didn't. Yes, she did.
Yes / No questions with ***be*** are formed by putting ***was*** or ***were*** before the subject.	**Was** he innocent? **Were** you in prison?	Yes, he was. Yes, I was.
2. Most *wh-* questions in the past begin with the **question word** followed by ***did* + subject + the base form** of the verb.	**When did** he **go** to prison? **Where did** he **live**? **What did** the police **do**? **Why did** he **go** to prison? **How long did** he **stay** in prison?	He went to prison in 1975. He lived in New York. They lost the evidence. He committed a crime. He stayed in prison for 22 years.
Wh- questions in the past do not use *did* when the question is about the subject.	**Who** helped? (NOT: Who did help?)	The Innocence Project helped.

(continued on next page)

THE SIMPLE PAST: *YES / NO* AND *WH-* QUESTIONS

3. There are three endings for regular verbs in the simple past: ***-d***, ***-ed*** and ***-ied***.	Roger **lived** in Chicago. The police **talked** to the victim. The lawyers **tried** to help Roger.	
Irregular past verbs do not add *–ed*. They often look different from the base form.	The eyewitness **saw** the crime. Roger's family **went** to the movies.	

3 *Write the verbs in the past tense.*

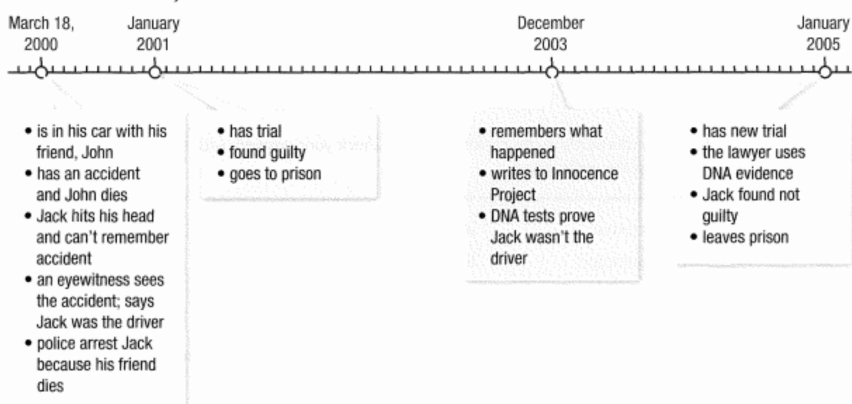
Base Form	Past Tense	Base Form	Past Tense
accuse	accused	help	helped
arrest	arrested	leave	left
be	was	live	lived
come	came	prove	proved
commit	commited	say	said
die	died	see	saw
do	did	take	took
find	found	tell	told
go	went	test	tested
have	has	write	wrote

4 *Look at the timeline of events in Jack Smith's life. He was arrested, but he wasn't guilty. Work with a partner. Take turns asking and answering questions about the events.*

Example

A: Where did Jack live in 2000?
B: He lived in New York City.
B: What happened on March 18?
A: He had an accident.

Name: Jack Smith
Hometown: New York City



C SPEAKING

PRONUNCIATION: *–ed* Endings—A Sound or a Syllable?

Sometimes the –ed ending is pronounced as a new syllable. Sometimes it is pronounced as a single sound at the end of the verb. Listen to the underlined words in the text.

The Innocence Project decided to look at Roger Brook's case. They investigated and helped Roger prove that he was innocent. Roger's family never believed that he was guilty. Finally, after 25 years, the court agreed with Roger and his family.

Write the verbs from the text in the correct blanks.

The *–ed* ending is pronounced as a syllable: ______________________

The *–ed* ending is pronounced as a single, final sound: ______________________

____

RULES FOR PRONOUNCING THE *–ED* ENDING	
The *–ed* ending is a syllable when the verb ends in a /t/ or /d/ sound. The *–ed* ending is pronounced /ɪd/.	decide–decid<u>ed</u> investigate–investigat<u>ed</u>
The *–ed* ending is a final sound, /t/, when the verb ends in a voiceless sound.	work—wor<u>ked</u> /k/ /kt/ help—hel<u>ped</u> /p/ /pt/ release—relea<u>sed</u> /s/ /st/ laugh—lau<u>ghed</u> /f/ /ft/
The *–ed* ending is a final sound, /d/, when the verb ends in a voiced sound or a vowel sound.	agree—agree<u>d</u> /d/ believe—belie<u>ved</u> /v/ /vd/

1 *Write the verbs in the correct column. Check your answers with a partner's and practice saying the verbs aloud.*

arrested	listened	married	tried
convicted	lived	recommended	wanted
ended	located	started	watched
happened	loved	tested	worked

-*ed* is a syllable	**-*ed* is a sound**

2 *Work with a partner. Write the past tense of the verb in the correct column. Then put the sentences in the correct order to tell Roger Brook's story. Practice telling the story to a partner.*

ORDER	STORY	IRREGULAR VERB	–ED IS A SYLLABLE	–ED IS A SOUND
	The court (review) the new evidence.			reviewed
	The police (show) the victim pictures of suspects.			showed
1	In 1980, someone (commit) a crime.		committed	
	The police (arrest) Roger.		arrested	
	Roger (go) to prison.	went		
	The victim (pick) Roger's picture.			picked
	Roger (write) a letter to the Innocence Project about his case in prison.	wrote		
	The police (find) the DNA evidence.	found		
	Roger was (convict) of the crime.		convicted	
	Roger (walk) out of prison a free man.			walked
	The DNA evidence (prove) that Roger was innocent.			proved

FUNCTION: Expressing and Supporting an Opinion

Often in conversation, we want to express opinions on a topic. An opinion is something you believe to be true. Different people can have different opinions about the same thing. To get other people to agree with you, you should give reasons to support your opinion. You should say why you believe your opinion is true.

EXPRESSING AND SUPPORTING AN OPINION	AGREEING WITH AN OPINION	DISAGREEING WITH AN OPINION
I think DNA databases are a good idea [expressing opinion] because they help the police. [supporting an opinion] I feel that . . . In my opinion, . . . I believe . . . I don't think we should have DNA databases [expressing opinion] because DNA information should be private. [supporting an opinion] I don't feel . . . I don't believe . . .	I think so, too. I agree.	I don't think so. I don't agree. I disagree.

Work in a small group. One student reads a statement. Each student agrees or disagrees with the statement and explains his or her opinion.

Example

DNA databases are a good idea.

A: In my opinion, DNA databases are a good idea because they help solve crimes.
B: I disagree. I don't think DNA databases are a good idea. I think DNA information should be private.

1. The Innocence Project should help everyone in prison.
2. Everyone should give a DNA sample to a global DNA database.
3. A person who sees a crime is always a good eyewitness.
4. The police never do anything wrong.
5. A person in prison is there because he or she committed a crime.
6. The government should give people like Roger a lot of money.

PRODUCTION: Small-Group Discussion

Every day, the Innocence Project lawyers receive many letters from people in prison. These prisoners want the Innocence Project to help them prove they are innocent. The Innocence Project lawyers cannot take every case, but they take as many as possible. ***Imagine that you are working for the Innocence Project and have to choose the cases that you can help.*** Try to use the vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and language for expressing and supporting opinions that you learned in the unit.*

Work in a group of three. Each student has information on one case. Student A, your chart is on page 183. Student B, your chart is on page 184, and Student C, your chart is on page 185. Follow the steps.

Step 1: Before you decide on the cases, each student in the group must know about all the cases. Take turns asking each other questions about the cases until your charts are complete.

Example

A: How old is Louis Silver?
B: He is 53 years old.

B: Where did Dan Block live?
C: He lived in Chicago.

Step 2: When you all have complete information on each case, decide which case the Innocence Project will take first, second, and third. You must give your opinion and reasons why you think one case should be taken before another.

Example

A: I think we should take Johnny Muldar first. He was at home when the crime happened.
B: I don't think we should take his case first. We should take Dan Block's case first because he gave a false confession. He was probably very scared and didn't know what to do.

Step 3: After you decide the order of the cases, tell the class what order you recommend and why.

*For Alternative Speaking Topics, see page 72.

Listening Activity

Complete the chart with each group's choice of cases. Put a check (✓) under first, second, and third for each group's decision. What were the class's overall results?

	JOHNNY MULDAR	LOUIS SILVER	DAN BLOCK
First			
Second			
Third			

ALTERNATIVE SPEAKING TOPICS

Work in a small group. Discuss the questions.

1. How do you think innocent people can be protected from going to prison?
2. Imagine a person has been in prison for 20 years. Then, this person gets out because of DNA evidence. What kind of problems do you think this person faces? Make a list of needs a person might have. Explain each need.

RESEARCH TOPICS, see page 190.

Appendix (II)

The Instrument of the Study

Pre – Post Test

Name:-- ID:-----------------

<u>Listening:.</u>

1. “She _____ in Busan, South Korea.”

a) lives

b) works

c) was born

d) was a teacher

2. “At first, she _____ living there.”

a) wasn’t happy

b) hated

c) didn’t like

d) like

3. “Soon, she _____ it really well.”

a) could speak

b) couldn’t read

c) can’t speak

d) didn’t like

<u>Listening 2</u>

4. What did Steve see at the museum?

a) A new car

b) An old typewriter

c) An old telephone

d) A new computer

5. Where was Konrad Zuse from?

a) Canada

b) England

c) France

d) Germany

<u>Writing:</u>

6. A: _____

B: I'm afraid I'm busy all day.

a) What's the day today?

b) Why don't we have tea tomorrow?

c) Sorry, what does that mean?

d) Can I help you?

7. A: Does anybody want more cake?

B: _____

a) Yes, please. I’d love another slice. It’s delicious.

b) No, of course not. I don’t want a glass of cake.

c) Yes, of course. Here you are.

d) Yes, of course. That’s $2.50

8. Don’t go over the bridge, drive _____ it.

a) under

b) into

c) through

d) out of

9. A: Hello.

B: Hello. Can I speak to Audrey, please?

A: _____

a) Yes, she is.

b) I’m Audrey, can I take a message?

c) Audrey is here, what?

d) This is Audrey.

10. A: _____?

B: Let’s go to the beach, I want to swim.

a) What would you like to have?

b) Does anybody want more dessert?

c) Could you pass the salt, please?

d) It’s a sunny day. What shall we do?

Reading:

Read the passage and answer the questions.

Deserts

There is almost no rain in deserts, but there is water. You don’t see this water in the daytime, but you see it in the early morning. In deserts, the nights are cold. At the end of the night, there is dew on the plants and on the ground. So the plants get a little water at night.

Camels need a lot of water. Camels sometimes drink 90 liters of water in 10 minutes! But after that, they can drink nothing for a week. Most animals need water every day, but camels do not.

Deserts cover about 20% of the world’s land. Deserts, as you know, are very dry areas found in many countries, but they are not all hot. Some deserts are very cold. The Sahara is an example of a hot desert and Antarctica is an example of a cold desert.

11. What percentage of the world’s land is covered by deserts?

a) 0%

b) 1%

c) 20%

d)7%

12. The pronoun they in line 9 refers to the word ______________ .

a) deserts

b) world

c) land

d) countries

13. What happens to the plants at the end of the night?

a) There is ice on the plants.

b) There is dew on the plants.

c) There are insects on the plants.

d) There is sand on the plants.

14. How long do camels take to drink 90 liters of water?

a) An hour

b) 10 minutes

c) A half hour

d) A day

15. What is an example of a cold desert?

a) Sahara desert

b) Antarctica

c) Kuwait

d) India

Structure:

16. Which word is the opposite of "quiet"?

a) small

b) cheap

c) noisy

d) bad

17. Choose the correct numerical percentage for the word half.

a) 25%

b) 100%

c) 50%

d) 30%

18. Tabuk is ___________ old city.

a) the

b) a

c) __

d) an

19. I _______________ down the street yesterday when I saw my friend Omar.

a) was walking

b) walk

c) walks

d)walking

20. Which is __________ lake in Canada: lake Erie, Ontario or Superior? (Deep)

a) the deepest

b) the most deeper

c) deeper

d) deep

GOOD LUCK

Appendix (III)
Answer Key for the Instrument of the study

Question No.	A	B	C	D
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				

Appendix (IV)
Speaking test

Speaking Skill Instructions

Orientation 

Greet the student warmly and personally to clearly indicate the evaluation has NOT begun. [~45s]

My name is Dr. Assessment. What is your name? *How are you feeling?* *Is it too hot/cold in here?* *Are you a little nervous? I am too!* *Are you from Tabuk?*

Ask the student if they are ready to begin and confirm their name and number.
Place the divider and explain its purpose-- to obscure the scoring sheet and present information.

TASK 1 [45s]

I will say two words. Repeat the words back to me.

After reading the words aloud, DO NOT look up to signal the student to begin.
Read the words *only once.* DO NOT repeat the words for the student.

Choose only one set of words from the following, alternating sets between students:

jump shop	swim rock	cook sand	wash milk	talk desk
mountain advantage	penguin different	fountain employment	student furniture	painting yesterday
historical evaporates	information illustration	education exhibition	population conversation	technology acupuncture

If the student claims confusion, say:

What words did I say? or Tell me the words I said.

TASK 2 [90s]

Look at this picture and tell me as much about it as you can.

Select one of the illustrations and place it on the divider. If the illustration fails to solicit a rich response, try others as time permits. If this fails, mark what scores you can and move to the next task.

TASK 3 [45s]

Placing one of the five prompts provided, say:

Read these sentences aloud. **DO NOT** read them to yourself first.

To avoid errors, students will often attempt to silently process the prompts before, and as, they read. Discourage this with directions to "sound out" words with which the student appears to hesitate.

TASK 4 [90s]

The exam is *almost* finished. Now all we have to do is talk about something *you* would *like* to talk about. Would you like to talk about...

suggested topics

Football Shopping Vacation Family School Television

Fashions Cars Animals Illness Work Food

Ambition Success Embarrassment Regret Happiness Anger

Friends Childhood Internet Hobby Achievement Money

Recipe Book Story Legend Rules Directions

Appendix (V)
Speaking Test Rubric

Name______________________________ ID # ________________________

Task 1

∅	Pronunciation 1 2 3 4

Task 2

∅	Fluency 1 2 3 4	Pronunciation 1 2 3 4	Vocabulary 1 2 3 4	Comprehensibility 1 2 3 4

Task 3

∅	Fluency 1 2 3 4	Pronunciation 1 2 3 4	Task Completion 1 2 3 4

Task 4

∅	Fluency 1 2 3 4	Pronunciation 1 2 3 4	Vocabulary 1 2 3 4	Comprehensibility 1 2 3 4

Fluency
① Speech halting and uneven with long pauses; no complete expressions.
② Speech choppy and/or slow with pauses; few complete expressions
③ Some hesitation but manages to continue and complete an expression
④ Speech continuous with few pauses or stumbling

Pronunciation/Intonation
① Frequently interferes with communication
② Rarely interferes with communication
③ Does not interfere with communication
④ Enhances communication

Vocabulary
① Incorrect and/or inaccurate use
② Correct but inaccurate use
③ Correct and accurate use
④ Rich use of vocabulary

Comprehensibility
① Not understandable with many errors (word order, plurals, tense, agreement)
② Barely understandable, requiring interpretation
③ Understandable with few errors
④ Easily understandable with no errors

Task Completion
① Produces one and two items
② Produces three items
③ Produces four items
④ Produces five items